

LINGUISTIC SURVEY OF INDIA

LSI

UTTAR PRADESH



सत्यमेव जयते

LANGUAGE DIVISION
OFFICE OF THE REGISTRAR GENERAL, INDIA
www.censusindia.gov.in

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FOREWORD

The Linguistic Survey of India (LSI) is a unique project that is being carried out by the Office of the Registrar General of India, Language Division. The Language Division under the supervision of Registrar General of India, works on language related data procured through decennial Census. It carries out several projects aimed to archive basic grammatical sketches of languages and mother tongues spoken in India. The Linguistic Survey of India is a comprehensive work which encompasses the status of languages, various dialects and mother-tongues in the States and Union Territories across India. It is imperative, in a multilingual country like India to understand the linguistic scenario and adopt appropriate measures to determine the lingua franca among various speech communities so that proper policies and schemes can be undertaken and implemented for providing education in mother-tongues, development of indigenous literatures and extensive dissemination of knowledge. Linguistic surveys conducted by the Language Division also assist in preserving and promoting the lesser-known mother tongues and provide the basic impetus for further prospects in the field of linguistic research and socio-political study.

The Language Division of the Office of the Registrar General of India (ORGI) has been doing a remarkable work by conducting such comprehensive state-wise linguistic surveys and publishing survey reports in the form of state-wise volumes. The surveys are conducted using a uniform questionnaire and template and the analyzed data is compiled in the form of volumes that include demographic and sociolinguistic profiles of the speech communities in addition to grammatical sketches of the languages and mother-tongues concerned. The Mother Tongue Survey of India (MTSI) complements the Linguistic Survey of India by providing the basis of analysis for its surveys, especially in establishing the linguistic identities of the unclassified mother-tongues in each state of the country. Such surveys play an important role in opening up new avenues for the study of language pedagogy, language and ethnicity, language and society, language and mind, language and communication, and language and politics. Thus, the Linguistic Survey of India has been contributing immensely through its linguistic surveys in determining and analyzing the linguistic scenario of the Indian states and Union Territories.

It is worth mentioning that in the recent years, the Language Division of the Office of the Registrar General, India has published survey reports in the form of volumes for the Indian states. The project took off with the state of Odisha, followed by Dadra and Nagar Haveli. Subsequently, publications have been made describing the language situation of Sikkim, Rajasthan, West Bengal, Bihar, Jharkhand and Himachal Pradesh respectively. There are further plans to encompass the Southern part of the country and also the North-East India in the survey so that all the Indian languages and mother-tongues can be well documented and described accordingly. Such linguistic descriptions are highly essential for both academic and administrative domains.

I feel very happy and delighted to present the Linguistic Survey of India (LSI) - Uttar Pradesh in this current series. As a part of the continuing efforts to delineate the language profile of India state by state, the LSI-Uttar Pradesh volume is a comprehensive work in descriptive linguistics comprising descriptions of a language, Hindi, and eleven mother-tongues, viz., Awadhi, Dehati, Giharo, Khariboli, Pratapgarhi, Rathori, Mainpuri, Malham, Malyani, Gurmukhi, and Urtia. It gives us the dynamics of the linguistic situation of the state of Uttar Pradesh, vital information about the origin of the languages and mother-tongues and also the respective current statuses of the same. The number of speakers and the relative importance of the mother-tongues give us a clear picture of the current

linguistic situation of the state. Data-sets showing Hindi as a language as well as a mother-tongue have been presented separately in order to elucidate the distinction between mother-tongue and language, and display the actual strength of the speakers of Hindi as mother-tongue and as language. The analysis has been based on data elicited through a common questionnaire containing an exhaustive word list, list of sentences, and one short story developed by the Language Division.

I congratulate and extend my heartfelt gratitude towards the entire team of experts associated with the project and the contributors for undertaking the requisite efforts right from planning stage to data collection and report writing. I acknowledge the contribution and the guidance provided by the supervisor of the volume in the development of the same. Also, I thank the informants who extended their cooperation and provided us with the vital inputs about their respective mother-tongues. I sincerely acknowledge the efforts of each and every person associated in the Linguistic Survey of India - Uttar Pradesh project.

I believe that this Linguistic Survey of India (LSI)- Uttar Pradesh volume will certainly be a resourceful piece of literature for the Hindi language and the eleven mother-tongues described herein and shall assist academicians, researchers and government organizations in ways manifold. As we know, a wholesome description of Indian languages which has been well credited at national and international forums is the Linguistic Survey of India (1894-1927) by Sir George Abraham Grierson; we however felt a dearth in elaborate description of the mother-tongues in the states of India. The volume presents a comprehensive picture of the language situation and fulfills the longstanding gap in the sphere of language science. It is expected that this descriptive linguistic volume shall be an active stimulus in furthering research and studies in sociolinguistics, ethnolinguistics, language pedagogy and typological studies. Moreover, the volume shall contribute towards the development of the speech communities at large as it will help the language planners to formulate new policies and schemes for the better development of the mother-tongues in the state of Uttar Pradesh.



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PREFACE

The “*Linguistic Survey of India*” is a regular ongoing project of the Language Division, Office of the Registrar General, India which started in the year 1984. The need to have linguistic survey was identified because of various reasons. The first and foremost was to account for the socio-linguistic changes, re-drawing of territorial boundaries and also the changes in language resources. Secondly, the present survey is a supplementation and complementation of the monumental work by Sir George Abraham Grierson entitled ‘Linguistic Survey of India’ between the years 1903-1928 in the pre-independent India. During the time, Uttar Pradesh was called the United Provinces and it was in the year 1950 that it was renamed. It was in the year 2000 when the state of Uttarakhand was carved out of Uttar Pradesh.

In the past, this Division has successfully produced volumes on Survey Reports of the states of Orissa (present Odisha), Dadra & Nagar Haveli, Sikkim (Part I & II), Rajasthan (Part I), West Bengal, Bihar, Jharkhand and Himachal Pradesh.

The present volume entitled “Linguistic Survey of India – Uttar Pradesh” consists of three chapters. One of the Scheduled languages and eleven (11) Mother Tongues have been surveyed for this volume based on their socio-linguistic and political importance as well as the speaker’s strength of the language/mother tongue.

The Chapter 1 which is titled Introduction covers the state’s history, geography, present administrative divisions, district-wise population with rural-urban break-up, linguistic history and composition, status of Multilingualism in Uttar Pradesh and a brief introduction of the surveyed Language/ Mother Tongues.

The Chapter 2 contains the linguistic description of the Languages/ Mother Tongues of the Indo-Aryan language family. The language covered in this volume is Hindi and the Mother Tongues covered are Awadhi, Dehati, Giharo, Gurmukhi, Khariboli, Mainpuri, Malham, Malyani, Pratapgarhi, Rathodi and Urtia.

The Chapter 3 contains the comparative lexicon of 500 lexical items of the above-mentioned Language/ Mother Tongues.

The field survey was conducted based on one common questionnaire containing the exhaustive word list, sentence list and one short story developed by the Language Division, Office of the Registrar General, India to elicit data from the informants.

First and foremost, it is imperative to thank all the contributors of this volume who painstakingly collected data during field investigation with limited facilities and braving the inclement weather conditions of the region. It is also pertinent to mention here that the field survey to collect data was undertaken in the middle of COVID-19 pandemic amid restrictions and lockdowns.

This volume could not have assumed its shape without the constant encouragement of Shri Manoj Kumar, Deputy Director General. His efforts and intervention at every step i.e.

starting with getting financial clearances for the field work, getting requisite help from concerned Directorate of Census Operation (DCOs), monitoring of the field work, overall supervision in finalizing to publication, the division is grateful and indebted. It is pertinent to thank Shri Kaushick Saha, IAS, Director, DCO-West Bengal and Controlling Officer, Language Division for his direction and inspiration. Dr. Vishwanath, IAS (Ex Director, DCO-West Bengal and Controlling Officer, Language Division deserves gratitude and acknowledgement for his overwhelming enthusiasm and inspiration as it was during his tenure that the field studies were conducted and was instrumental in getting resources and permissions pooled together. Dr. R. Nakkeerar, Senior Research Officer (L) & Head of Office worked for finalization and submission of the Volume. During his period, he submitted the proposal for preparation of Maps for the Volume to be drawn by the Map Division of Office of the Registrar General, India. The contributors of the Map Division under the guidance of Dr. V.V.L.N. Sarma, DRG (Map) and special efforts by Dr. Kandhai Singh, Consultant (Map) deserve a special acknowledgement for the imagination and creativity in developing the Maps for this Volume.

The field investigation to collect data on the Languages/ Mother Tongues surveyed in Uttar Pradesh under Linguistic survey of India - Uttar Pradesh would not have been possible without the cooperation and help of the Directorate of Census Operations, Uttar Pradesh and the various other officials of Uttar Pradesh. Hence, their sincere help and cooperation are duly acknowledged.

The informants of the various Languages/ Mother Tongues are acknowledged with sincere gratitude and appreciation for their cooperation in providing extensive data. Their undying dedication to provide data, to answer smallest questions, and their constant deliberation without which the volume could not have been compiled.

I hope this volume acts as succour to the needs of different strata of the population, aid in broadening the horizon of the common people with regard to Language/Mother Tongue and answer their most basic questions. It will also be of great help to various departments of the government in socio-linguistic and socio-educational planning.

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JUNE, 2023

MRITUNJAY KUMAR NARAYAN
REGISTRAR GENERAL & CENSUS COMMISSIONER, INDIA

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&

WEB CELL of ORGI

ABBREVIATIONS

Sg-/SG. /sg/Sing.	Singular
pl./Pl.	Plural
e.g.	For Example
Masc./m./M	Masculine
Fem./f./F/fem.	Feminine
trans.	Transitive
V	Verb
NP	Noun Phrase
LSI	Linguistic Survey of India
Vol.	Volume
MT/mt	Mother Tongue
P	Person
PP/p	Pages
T	Total
R	Rural
U	Urban
i.e.	That is
ed.	Edited
ABL./abl.	Ablative Case
ACC./acc.	Accusative Case
ADJ./adj.	Adjective
ADV.	Adverb
ART.	Article
ASSOC.	Associative
AUX./aux./Aux.	Auxiliary

ben	Benefactive
CAUS	Causative
Cl	Clause
C/Con/con/c	Consonant
Cont.	Continuous
caus./cau	Causative
CL	Classifier
COMP	Complementizer
COMP MKR	Comparative Marker
CONJ	Conjunction
DAT	Dative Case
DECL	Declarative
DET	Determiner
Emp.	Emphatic
e.g.	Example
etc.	Etcetera
Fin./ft./f.	Finite
Fut./FUT.	Future
gen./gen/Gen./geni.	Genitive Case
HAB	Habitual Aspect
Hon.	Honorific
Imp. /IMP.	Imperative
Imperf.	Imperfect
INF	Infinite
INS	Instrumental Case
incl.	Inclusive
INT	Intensifier
LOC	Locative Case

man.adv	Manner Adverbial
Mar.	Marker
N	Noun
NEG./neg.	Negative
Neu	Neuter
NOM./nom.	Nominative Case
NOMNLZR	Nominalizer
NUM	Number
Nf	Non-Finite
OPT	Optative
pass.	Passive
Pt.	Part
pcpl./PTCP.	Participle
PREP/pre.	Preposition
pred.	Predicate
Pt./PST./Past ten	Past Tense
PRS.cont./PROG./pr.cont.	Present Continuous Tense
PERF	Perfective
PL	Plural
PP./POSTP.	Post Position
PRES./PRS./pr./pre.ten.	Present Tense
PROG	Progressive (continuous)
PROHIB	Prohibitive Mood
prt	Particle
QMKR	Question Marker
QUO	Quotative
Relat	Relative
reflex	Reflexive
REV	Reversal
SOV	Subject+Object+Verb

SBJV	Subjunctive
suf	Suffix
SUBJ./sub./s.	Subject
OBJ./obj./o./ob.	Object
vb./v	Verb
V.CL.	Vowel Cluster
V/v	Vowel
viz.	Namely
Vol/vol	Volume
1Sg	first person singular pronominal prefix
2Sg	second person singular pronominal prefix
3Sg	third person singular pronominal prefix
1Pl	first person plural pronominal prefix
2Pl	second person plural pronominal prefix
3Pl	third person plural pronominal prefix

PHONETIC SYMBOLS

Asp.	Aspirated
Alv.	Alveolar
approx.	Approximate
Al	Alveolar
Bi/BL	Bilabial
GL	Glottal
PL.	Palatal
RT/Ret	Retroflex
Vel.	Velar
VL	Voiceless
VD	Voiced
/i/	High Front Unrounded Vowel
	Close Front Vowel
/e/	Mid Front Unrounded Vowel
	Close Mid Front Vowel
/ɪ/	High Central Unrounded Vowel
/ə/	Mid Central Vowel
/a/	Low Central Unrounded Vowel (long vowel)
	Low back vowel
/u/	High Back Rounded Vowel
	Close Back Vowel
/o/	Mid-back rounded Vowel
/æ/	Mid front Vowel

/ɛ/	Open Mid front Vowel
/ɔ/	Open Mid Back Vowel
/ʊ/	Close Back unrounded Vowel
/p/	Voiceless Bilabial Stop
/t/	High Back Central Unrounded Vowel
/ph//p ^h /	Voiceless Bilabial Aspirated Stop
/b/	Voiced Bilabial Stop
/bh/ /b ^h /	Voiced Bilabial Aspirated Stop
/t/	Voiceless Dental Stop
/th//t ^h /	Voiceless Dental Aspirated Stop
/d/	Voiced Dental Stop
/dh/ /d ^h /	Voiced Dental Aspirated Stop
/ʈ/	Voiceless Unaspirated Retroflex stop
/t ^h /	Voiceless Aspirated Retroflex stop
/ɖ/	Voiced Unaspirated Retroflex stop
/ɖ ^h /	Voiced aspirated Retroflex stop
/k/	Voiceless Unaspirated Velar stop
/k ^h /	Voiceless Aspirated Velar stop
/g/	Voiced Unaspirated Velar stop
/g ^h / /g ^h /	Voiced Aspirated Velar stop
/c/	Voiceless Palatal Affricate
/ch//c ^h /	Voiceless Palatal Aspirated Affricate
/ S' /	Palatal Voiceless Fricative
/ ʃ /	Voiceless palatal plosive
/ ʃ ^h /	Voiced palatal plosive
/m/	Voiced Bilabial Nasal
/N/	Uvular Nasal

/n/	Dental Nasal
/ɲ/,/M'/	Palatal Nasal
/ŋ/	Retroflex Nasal
/ŋ/, /M/	Velar Nasal
/ɾ/	Dental Trill
/ɽ/	Retroflex Flap
/ɾ /	Voiced Alveolar Tap
/l/	Voiced Alveolar Lateral
/ɭ/	Retroflex Lateral
/f/	Voiceless Labio-Dental Fricative
/s/	Voiceless Alveolar Fricative
/z/	Voiced Alveolar Fricative
/ʃ/	Voiceless Palatal fricative
/ts/	Voiceless Dental Affricate
/ts ^h /	Voiceless Dental Aspirated Affricate
/tʃ/	Voiceless post-alveolar Affricate
/dʒ/	Voiced post-alveolar Affricate
/ʂ/	Voiceless Retroflex fricative
/h/	Voiceless Glottal Fricative
/ɦ/	Voiced Glottal Fricative
/ʋ/	Labio-Dental Approximant
/y//j/	Palatal Approximant

LIST OF MAPS

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Map 8: Family-wise Distribution of surveyed Language in Uttar Pradesh 2011

INTRODUCTION

1. INTRODUCTION

R. Nakkeerar

Uttar Pradesh is one of the twenty-nine states in India with a population of 19,98,12,341 and covering an area of 2,40,928 km² as per the Census of India, 2011 in this manner making it the maximum inhabited state in India.

The state of Uttar Pradesh is advantaged with convinced idiosyncratic physiognomies among other states of the Indian Union. Geologically it gets the richest fertile land of the country, along with physical beauty of nature. In history, it is prominently glorified. From the point of culture, it is profoundly rich and socially very substantial. Administratively Uttar Pradesh is very strong.

Uttar Pradesh has been through the old stories of chivalry and valor, charity and generosity, fidelity and devotion. Uttar Pradesh has a living representation of the past which has great significance for the present.

During the Vedic period, it is known as Madhya Desh. The state of Uttar Pradesh received its name after various changes because this state has witnessed invasion by various rulers. The major portion of the central India dedicated and devoted to Hindu, Buddha and Jain traditions lies in this state.

1.1 Historical Background

Uttar Pradesh in earlier times known as North-Western Provinces or United Provinces, was formed on 1 April 1937. The name of the state is mentioned in famous Hindu epic poems of Ramayana and Mahabharata which was composed approximately 7000 years to 5000 years back. Ayodhya, the birth place of Lord Rama was the capital of Kosala which falls within the regional boundaries of the modern-day Uttar Pradesh. Shri Krishna as given a picture in the Mahabharata reflected as the eight avatara of Lord Vishnu was born in Mathura which is part of the present Uttar Pradesh.

The history of Uttar Pradesh has been invaded and the history dates back to the Aryan Age. However, the invading period began from The Khusan Dynasty followed by The Gupta Dynasty. The history of the period from the middle of the second century to the rise of The Gupta rulers in the fourth century is very nebulous. India's major kings of the Maurya, Kushan, Gupta and Gurjara - Pratihara empires ruled over the region with power and stability.

The geographical feature of the Gangetic plain has been an easy route for the invaders because the trespassers of South India, mostly conceded through the Gangetic plains of present day Uttar Pradesh.

The other dynasties that ruled Uttar Pradesh were the Mamluk dynasty, Khalji dynasty, Tughlaq dynasty, Sayyid dynasty and the Lodhi dynasty between the thirteenth and sixteenth centuries. In the 16th Century, Babur, a descendant of Timur and Genghis Khan, from modern-day Uzbekistan came across the Khyber Pass and founded the Mughal empire. Uttar Pradesh became the nucleus of the Mughal Empire. After the fall of the Mughal's the region was taken over by the Marathas. In 1803, the British East India Company defeated the Maratha kingdom. From that time onwards much of the region came under British rule.

In the 2nd half of the 18th Century, a series of battles were fought for the acquisition of North Indian lands. The second Anglo-Maratha war in 1803 gave the British East India Company accession over the state. The North Western Provinces of Agra, as it was named, included the Ajmer and Jaipur kingdoms. It was one of the smallest states of the British Indian Empire. The capital shifted twice between Agra and Allahabad.

Following the Sepoy Mutiny of 1857, the British attempted to divide the most rebellious regions by reorganizing the administrative boundaries of the region, splitting the Delhi region from 'NWFP of Agra' and merging it with Punjab. The Ajmer-Marwar region was merged with Rajputana. Rajput and Oudh were fused into the state. This new state was renamed as the United Provinces of Agra and Oudh. In 1920, the capital of the province was shifted from Allahabad to Lucknow. Allahabad continues to be an important administrative place of Uttar Pradesh today and several administrative headquarters are in Allahabad. Uttar Pradesh continued to be central to Indian politics and was especially important in modern Indian History as a place of focus of the Indian Independence Movement. Uttar Pradesh is well known for the modern educational institutions like Banaras Hindu University and Aligarh Muslim University.

After India's independence, the United Provinces were reorganized as Uttar Pradesh in 1950. The state has provided seven prime ministers and is the largest representative state in terms of number of seats in Lok Sabha.

1.2. Geographical Features

Uttar Pradesh covered an area of 2,94,411 km² before the formation of Uttarakhand. Later on, with the formation of Uttarakhand on 9th November, 2000, the state has 2,40,928 km² of area. The state lies between 23° 52' North to 30° 24' North latitude and longitude wise between 77° 05' to 84° 38' East.

The state shares an international boundary with Nepal. It is bounded by Haryana, Delhi and Rajasthan in the west and south west, Madhya Pradesh in south and Bihar in east.

Prior to the existence of Uttarakhand, Uttar Pradesh was divided into three distinct regions the Himalayan region in the north the Gangetic plain in the middle and the peninsula region in the South but since after the new state was formed the Himalayan region was separated leaving only Bahabar and the Teherai part as its sub Himalayan zone. The Gangetic

Plain covers two third of Uttar Pradesh and is built by the river Ganga and its tributaries namely the Ram Ganga, Gomti and Ghagra. This region has an elevated track and deposits of clay and sand. There is no place in this region which is more than 300 metres above the sea level.

This region is densely populated and immensely vital for the economy of the state as the soil available in this region is alluvial soil fertile and henceforth has deep contribution for the development of the state. This state also has a sub Himalayan range and foothills of the Shivaliks. The small Himalayan rivers and streams which pass through this region vanish underground and they emerge again and create a marshy tract all the time so the talent is formed as a swamp zone and which is covered by tall grasses and thick forests. now the second part of geographical phenomenon the most ancient works of diversified origins the mountains represent are the result of extreme weather and deposits of several years. The eastern region consists of India private are the Vindhiya mountains and the western ocean consists of five rocky highlands. This portion has a mixture of sedimentary rocks sandstone limestone sand shelves.

This particular state has tropical monsoon climate temperature from 3-4⁰C in January to 43 to 44⁰C towards may June. The weather of the state is reflected by three different seasons the winter season October to February summer March to June and monsoon June to September.

The state gets major share of rains of about 83% between mid-June and mid- September mainly from Bay of Bengal Monsoon and about 17% due to north westerly cyclones. The rains in the sub-Himalayan region as it is popularly called, the average annual rainfall is over 100cms.

The Gangetic plain covers nearly two-third of Uttar Pradesh and is bounded by the Yamuna, Ganga and its northern tributaries - the Ram Ganga, Gomti and Ghagra. The soil of Indo-Gangetic plain is alluvial and very fertile. The main crops of this region are paddy, wheat, gram, millets and sugarcane. The southernmost part of Uttar Pradesh is the peninsular plateau. The height of the plateau is 300 metres above sea level, in some places it is about 450 metres. It is composed of mainly granite and gneiss. The state has a tropical monsoon climate with temperature varying between 3-4 degree Celsius and 43-44 degree Celsius in May- June.

1.3. Administrative Divisions

Administratively, the state is divided into 68 districts and 17 divisions

Agra Division comprising 7 districts

- | | | | |
|-------------|-------------------|------------|--------------|
| 1. Agra | 2. Aligarh | 3. Etah | 4. Firozabad |
| 5. Mainpuri | 6. Mahamaya Nagar | 7. Mathura | |

Azamgarh Division comprising 3 districts

- | | | |
|-------------|-----------|--------|
| 1. Azamgarh | 2. Ballia | 3. Mau |
|-------------|-----------|--------|

Allahabad Division comprising 3 districts

- | | | |
|--------------|--------------|-------------|
| 1. Allahabad | 2. Kaushambi | 3. Fatehpur |
|--------------|--------------|-------------|

Bareilly Division comprising 4 districts

- | | | | |
|-------------|-----------|-------------|---------------|
| 1. Bareilly | 2. Budaun | 3. Pilibhit | 4. Saharanpur |
|-------------|-----------|-------------|---------------|

Basti comprising 3 districts

- | | | |
|----------|---------------------|-------------------|
| 1. Basti | 2. Sant Kabir Nagar | 3. Siddharthnagar |
|----------|---------------------|-------------------|

Chitrakut Division comprising 3 districts

- | | | |
|----------|-------------|-----------|
| 1. Banda | 2. Hamirpur | 3. Mahoba |
|----------|-------------|-----------|

Devi Patan Division comprising 4 districts

- | | | | |
|----------|-------------|--------------|--------------|
| 1. Gonda | 2. Bahraich | 3. Balrampur | 4. Shrawasti |
|----------|-------------|--------------|--------------|

Faizabad Division comprising 4 districts

- | | | | |
|-------------|-------------------|--------------|--------------|
| 1. Faizabad | 2. Ambedkar Nagar | 3. Barabanki | 4. Sultanpur |
|-------------|-------------------|--------------|--------------|

Gorakhpur Division comprising 4 districts

- | | | | |
|--------------|-----------|---------------|---------------|
| 1. Gorakhpur | 2. Deoria | 3. Kushinagar | 4. Mahrajganj |
|--------------|-----------|---------------|---------------|

Jhansi Division comprising 3 districts

- | | | |
|-----------|-----------|-------------|
| 1. Jhansi | 2. Jalaun | 3. Lalitpur |
|-----------|-----------|-------------|

Kanpur Division comprising 6 districts

- | | | | |
|-----------------|-----------------|------------|-----------|
| 1. Kanpur Nagar | 2. Kanpur Dehat | 3. Auraiya | 4. Etawah |
| 5. Etawah | 6. Farrukhabad | 7. Kannauj | |

Meerut Division comprising 5 districts

- | | | | |
|-----------|--------------|----------------|------------------------|
| 1. Meerut | 2. Baghpat | 3. Bulandshahr | 4. Gautam Buddha Nagar |
| | 5. Ghaziabad | | |

Mirzapur Division comprising 3 districts

- | | | |
|-------------|-----------------------|--------------|
| 1. Mirzapur | 2. Sant Ravidas Nagar | 3. Sonbhadra |
|-------------|-----------------------|--------------|

Moradabad Division comprising 4 districts

- | | | | |
|--------------|-----------|------------------------|-----------|
| 1. Moradabad | 2. Bijnor | 3. Jyotiba Phule Nagar | 4. Rampur |
|--------------|-----------|------------------------|-----------|

Saharanpur Division comprising 2 districts

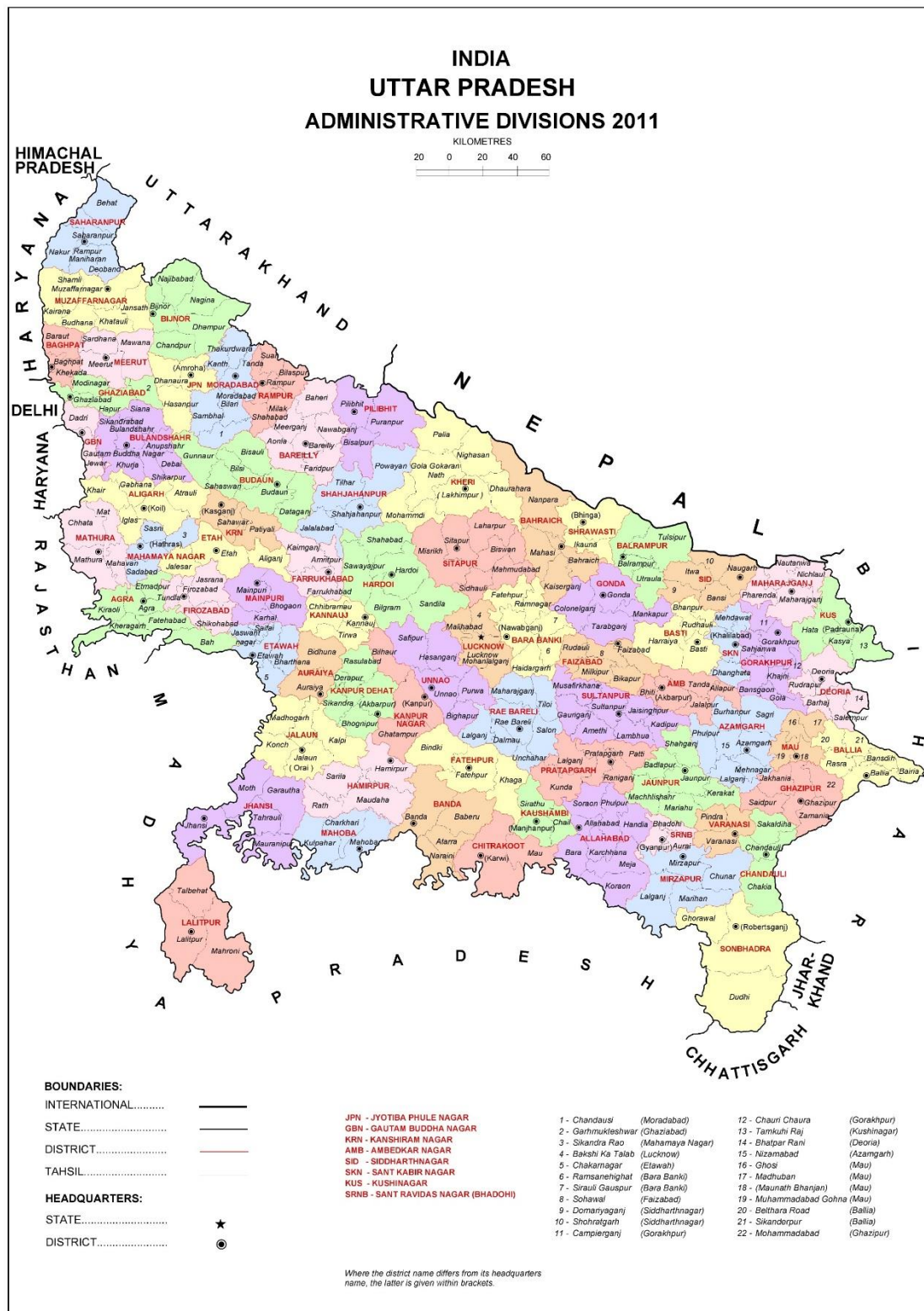
- | | |
|---------------|------------------|
| 1. Saharanpur | 2. Muzaffarnagar |
|---------------|------------------|

Varanasi Division comprising 4 districts

1. Varanasi	2. Chandauli	3. Ghazipur	4. Jaunpur
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Lucknow Division comprising 6 districts

1. Lucknow	2. Hardoi	3. Kheri	4. Rae Bareli
5. Sitapur	6. Unnao		



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1.4. Demographical Features

The demographical features of any state is associated with the variables such as birth and death, migration and mortality rate etc. These variables are dynamic in nature and are subjected to change over time. The theme of population is linked with the quantitative and the qualitative characteristics of size, structure and regional distribution of human population in the context of biological, communal and commercial surroundings.

According to United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA), demographic disbursement of any state means the economic progress which results and is simultaneously affected from shifts in a population's age structure.

Total population of Uttar Pradesh is 19,98,12,341 with the average population density of 829 per sq. km² i.e. 2,146 per sq. mi. The state reveal that population of Uttar Pradesh has increased by 20.23% in this decade compared (2001 – 2011) to past decade (1991 – 2001).

As per 2011 Census, Allahabad is the most populous district of Uttar Pradesh while Mahoba being the least populated state. Average sex ratio of Uttar Pradesh is 912. Only three districts namely Jaunpur, Azamgarh and Deoria have a sex ration greater than 1000 while Gautam Buddha Nagar stands lowest in the tally with a very low ration of 851.

Uttar Pradesh is the most populous state in India with a population of 199.8 million according to the 2011 census. A figure surpassed only by the largest and most populous countries of the world. The population of UP is more the countries of world excluding the population of China, United State of America, Indonesia, Brazil and Russian Republic. This population is distributed in 155317278 households living in the villages and reaming leaving in the towns. It supports and sustains a huge 16 percent to total population of India, which ranks first in the country. Current birth and death rate in UP are above the national average. The population of the state as per census data for 1981, 1991, 2001 and 2011.

As per Census 2011, Uttar Pradesh has a population of 19,98 crores, which has increased from figure of 16.62 Crores in 2001 census. As per 2011 census the total population of Uttar Pradesh is 19,98,12,341. Out of them, male and female counting is 10,44,80,510 and 9,53,31,831 respectively. In 2001, the total population was 16,61,97,921 out of them, the male population was 8,75,65,369 and females were 78,63,255. The total population growth in this decade was 20.23 percent while in previous decade it was 25.80 percent. The population of Uttar Pradesh forms 16.50 percent of India in 2011. In 2001, the figure was 16.16 percent.

District wise total and male-female population and their respective ratio (as per 2011 census) have been given in the following table.

District	Population			Sex ratio (Female/ Thousand Males)
	Male	Female	Total	
Agra	23,64,953	20,53,844	44,18,797	868
Aligarh	19,51,996	17,21,893	36,73,889	882
Allahabad	31,31,807	28,22,584	59,54,391	901
Ambedkar Nagar	12,12,410	11,85,478	23,97,888	978
Auraiya	7,40,040	6,39,505	13,79,545	864
Azamgarh	22,85,004	23,28,909	46,13,913	1,019
Baghpat	7,00,070	6,02,978	13,03,048	861
Bahraich	18,43,884	16,43,847	34,87,731	892
Ballia	16,72,902	15,66,872	32,39,774	937
Balrampur	11,14,721	10,33,944	21,48,665	928
Banda	9,65,876	8,33,534	17,99,410	863
Bara Banki	17,07,073	15,53,626	32,60,699	910
Bareilly	23,57,665	20,90,694	44,48,359	887
Basti	12,55,272	12,09,192	24,64,464	963
Bijnor	19,21,215	17,61,498	36,82,713	917
Budaun	19,67,759	17,14,137	36,81,896	871
Bulandshahr	18,45,260	16,53,911	34,99,171	896
Chandauli	10,17,905	9,34,851	19,52,756	918
Chitrakoot	5,27,721	4,64,009	991,730	879
Deoria	15,37,436	15,63,510	31,00,946	1,017
Etah	9,47,339	8,27,141	17,74,480	873
Etawah	8,45,856	7,35,954	15,81,810	870
Faizabad	12,59,628	12,11,368	24,70,996	962
Farrukhabad	10,06,240	8,78,964	18,85,204	874
Fatehpur	13,84,722	12,48,011	26,32,733	901
Firozabad	13,32,046	11,66,110	24,98,156	875
Gautam Buddha Nagar	8,90,214	7,57,901	16,48,115	851
Ghaziabad	24,88,834	21,92,811	46,81,645	881
Ghazipur	18,55,075	17,65,193	36,20,268	952

District	Population			Sex ratio (Female/ Thousand Males)
	Male	Female	Total	
Gonda	17,87,146	16,46,773	34,33,919	921
Gorakhpur	22,77,777	21,63,118	44,40,895	950
Hamirpur	5,93,537	5,10,748	11,04,285	861
Hardoi	21,91,442	19,01,403	40,92,845	868
Jalaun	9,06,092	7,83,882	16,89,974	865
Jaunpur	22,20,465	22,73,739	44,94,204	1,024
Jhansi	10,57,436	9,41,167	19,98,603	890
Jyotiba Phule Nagar	9,63,449	8,76,772	18,40,221	910
Kannauj	8,81,776	7,74,840	16,56,616	879
Kanpur Dehat	9,63,255	8,32,929	17,96,184	865
Kanpur Nagar	24,59,806	21,21,462	45,81,268	862
Kanshiram Nagar	7,64,165	6,72,554	14,36,719	880
Kaushambi	8,38,485	7,61,111	15,99,596	908
Kheri	21,23,187	18,98,056	40,21,243	894
Kushinagar	18,18,055	17,46,489	35,64,544	961
Lalitpur	6,41,011	5,80,581	12,21,592	906
Lucknow	23,94,476	21,95,362	45,89,838	917
Mahamaya Nagar	8,36,127	7,28,581	15,64,708	871
Mahoba	4,66,358	4,09,600	8,75,958	878
Mahrajganj	13,81,754	13,02,949	26,84,703	943
Mainpuri	9,93,377	8,75,152	18,68,529	881
Mathura	13,67,125	11,80,059	25,47,184	863
Mau	11,14,709	10,91,259	22,05,968	979
Meerut	18,25,743	16,17,946	34,43,689	886
Mirzapur	13,12,302	11,84,668	24,96,970	903
Moradabad	25,03,186	22,68,820	47,72,006	906
Muzaffarnagar	21,93,434	19,50,078	41,43,512	889
Pilibhit	10,72,002	9,59,005	20,31,007	895
Pratapgarh	16,06,085	16,03,056	32,09,141	998

District	Population			Sex ratio (Female/ Thousand Males)
	Male	Female	Total	
Rae Bareli	17,52,542	16,53,017	34,05,559	943
Rampur	12,23,889	11,11,930	23,35,819	909
Saharanpur	18,34,106	16,32,276	34,66,382	890
Sant Kabir Nagar	8,69,656	8,45,527	17,15,183	972
Sant Ravidas Nagar (Bhadohi)	8,07,099	7,71,114	15,78,213	955
Shahjahanpur	16,06,403	14,00,135	30,06,538	872
Shrawasti	5,93,897	5,23,464	11,17,361	881
Siddharthnagar	12,95,095	12,64,202	25,59,297	976
Sitapur	23,75,264	21,08,728	44,83,992	888
Sonbhadra	9,71,344	8,91,215	18,62,559	918
Sultanpur	19,14,586	18,82,531	37,97,117	983
Unnao	16,30,087	14,78,280	31,08,367	907
Varanasi	19,21,857	17,54,984	36,76,841	913
Uttar Pradesh	10,44,80,510	9,53,31,831	1,99,812,341	912

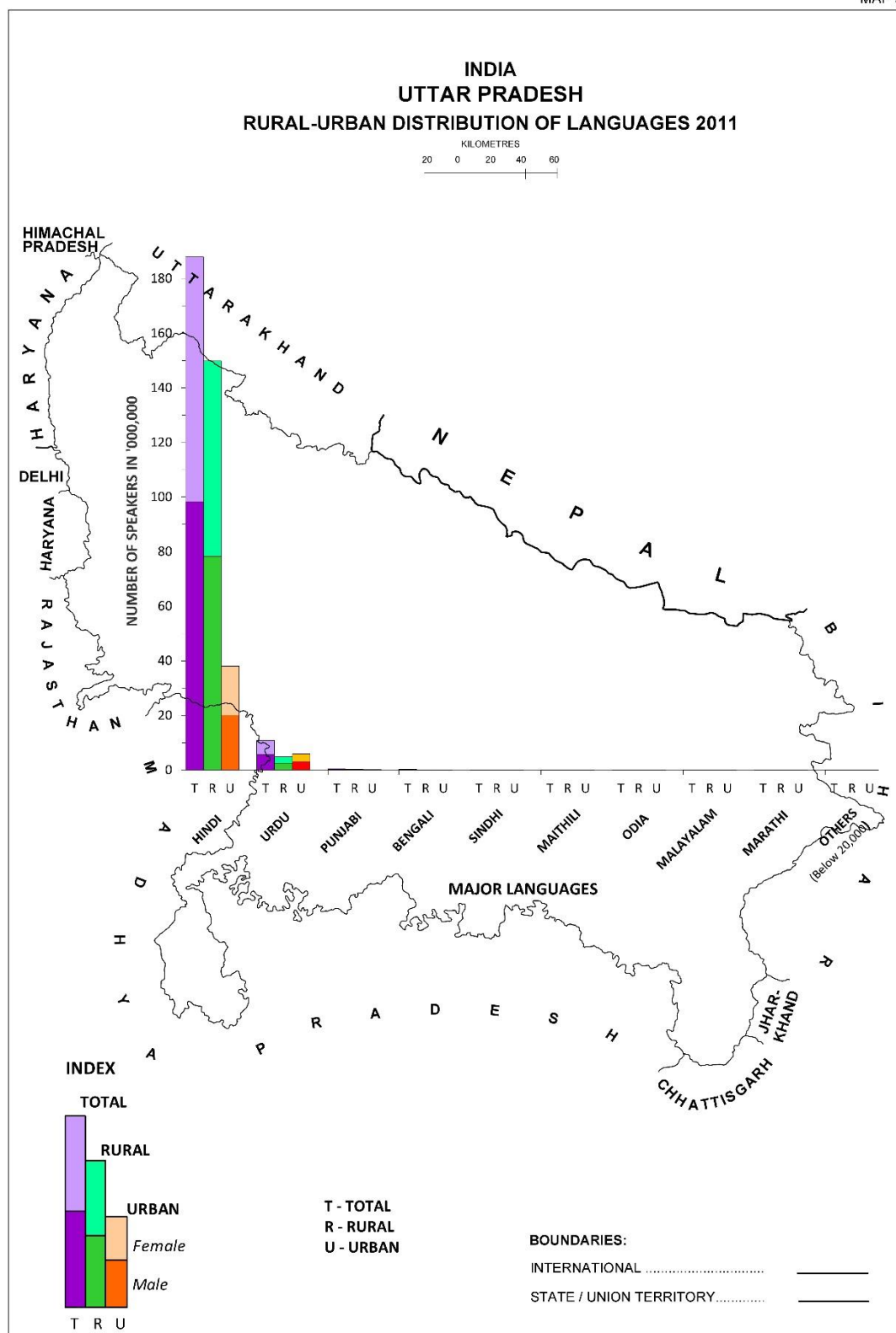
1.5. Rural-Urban Population

As per Census 2011, out of total population of Uttar Pradesh, 22.27% people live in urban regions while 77.73% resides in rural areas. The urban population is 4,44,95,063 in number out of which 2,34,87,515 are males while the 2,10,07,548 are females. In rural areas of the state, the male population is 8, 09, 92,995 while the female population is 7,43,24,283. According to Census 2011, the Shrawasti district has recorded highest percentage of rural population i.e. of 96.5% whereas Meerut has recorded lowest percentage of rural population i.e. 48.9%. The district with highest recorded percentage of urban population is Ghaziabad (67.6%) and lowest percentage is Shrawasti (3.5%)

The details of district wise population of Uttar Pradesh along with Rural-Urban specifications are furnished below as per the latest published data of 2011 Census

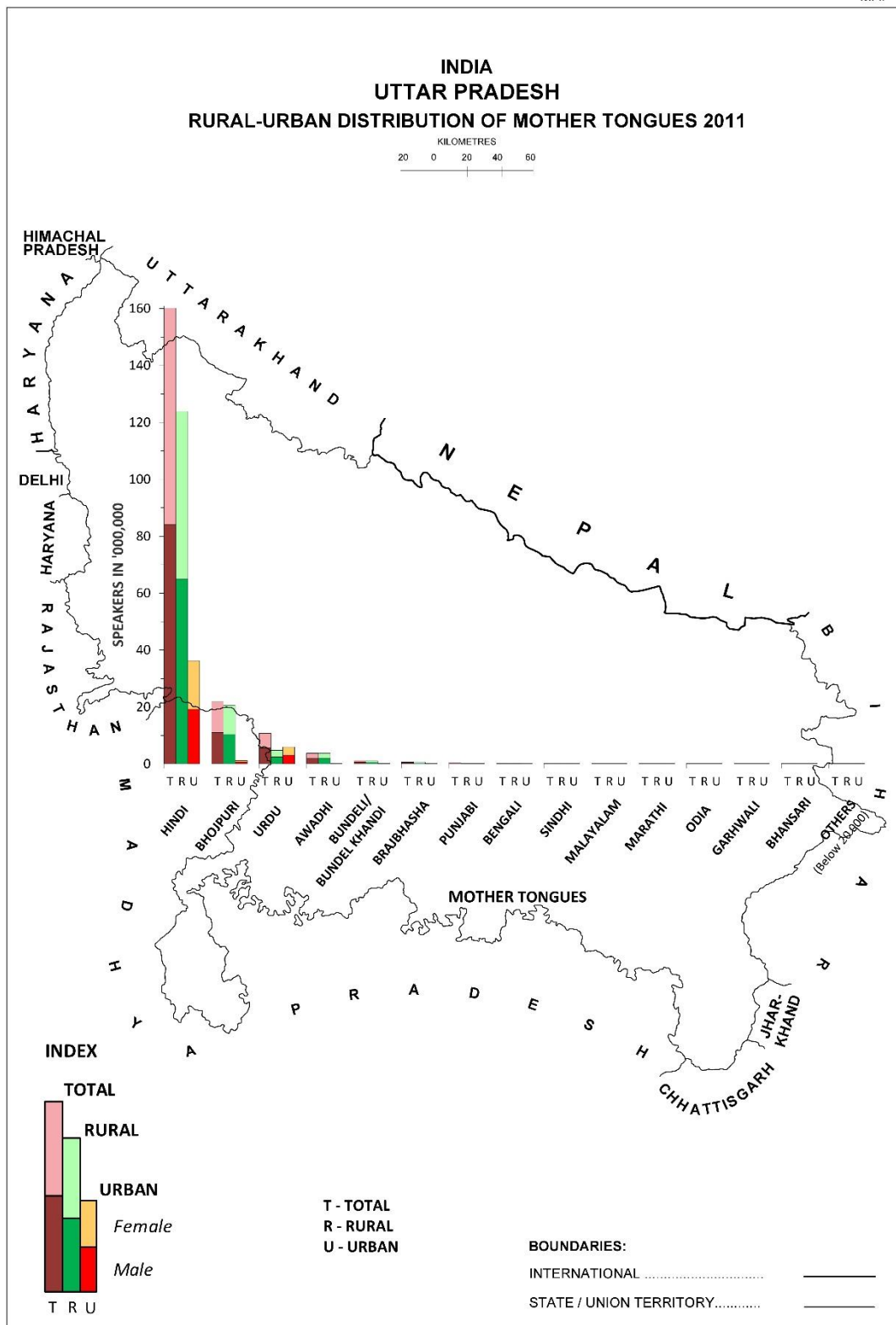
State & District	Total			Rural			Urban		
	Person	Male	Female	Person	Male	Female	Person	Male	Female
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Uttar Pradesh	19,98,12,341	10,44,80,510	9,53,31,831	15,53,17,278	8,09,92,995	7,43,24,283	4,44,95,063	2,34,87,515	2,10,07,548
Saharanpur	34,66,382	18,34,106	16,32,276	23,99,856	12,69,803	11,30,053	10,66,526	5,64,303	5,02,223
Muzaffarnagar	41,43,512	21,93,434	19,50,078	29,52,200	15,65,004	13,87,196	11,91,312	6,28,430	5,62,882
Bijnor	36,82,713	19,21,215	17,61,498	27,57,401	14,38,412	13,18,989	9,25,312	4,82,803	4,42,509
Moradabad	47,72,006	25,03,186	22,68,820	31,98,383	16,80,022	15,18,361	15,73,623	8,23,164	7,50,459
Rampur	23,35,819	12,23,889	11,11,930	17,47,172	9,16,878	8,30,294	5,88,647	3,07,011	2,81,636
Jyotiba Phule Nagar	18,40,221	9,63,449	8,76,772	13,81,508	7,24,539	6,56,969	4,58,713	2,38,910	2,19,803
Meerut	34,43,689	18,25,743	16,17,946	16,84,507	8,94,920	7,89,587	17,59,182	9,30,823	8,28,359
Baghpat	13,03,048	7,00,070	6,02,978	10,28,023	5,53,807	4,74,216	2,75,025	1,46,263	1,28,762
Ghaziabad	46,81,645	24,88,834	21,92,811	15,19,098	8,08,222	7,10,876	31,62,547	16,80,612	14,81,935
Gautam Buddha Nagar	16,48,115	8,90,214	7,57,901	6,73,806	3,59,605	3,14,201	9,74,309	5,30,609	4,43,700
Bulandshahr	34,99,171	18,45,260	16,53,911	26,31,742	13,90,490	12,41,252	8,67,429	4,54,770	4,12,659
Aligarh	36,73,889	19,51,996	17,21,893	24,56,698	13,08,923	11,47,775	12,17,191	6,43,073	5,74,118
Mahamaya Nagar	15,64,708	8,36,127	7,28,581	12,32,015	6,59,814	5,72,201	3,32,693	1,76,313	1,56,380
Mathura	25,47,184	13,67,125	11,80,059	17,91,191	9,62,028	8,29,163	7,55,993	4,05,097	3,50,896
Agra	44,18,797	23,64,953	20,53,844	23,94,602	12,85,184	11,09,418	20,24,195	10,79,769	9,44,426
Firozabad	24,98,156	13,32,046	11,66,110	16,64,987	8,91,872	7,73,115	8,33,169	4,40,174	3,92,995
Mainpuri	18,68,529	9,93,377	8,75,152	15,80,087	8,42,374	7,37,713	2,88,442	1,51,003	1,37,439
Budaun	36,81,896	19,67,759	17,14,137	30,37,301	16,30,376	14,06,925	6,44,595	3,37,383	3,07,212
Bareilly	44,48,359	23,57,665	20,90,694	28,79,950	15,30,356	13,49,594	15,68,409	8,27,309	7,41,100
Pilibhit	20,31,007	10,72,002	9,59,005	16,79,592	8,86,789	7,92,803	3,51,415	1,85,213	1,66,202
Shahjahanpur	30,06,538	16,06,403	14,00,135	24,12,446	12,93,714	11,18,732	5,94,092	3,12,689	2,81,403
Kheri	40,21,243	21,23,187	18,98,056	35,60,208	18,80,679	16,79,529	4,61,035	2,42,508	2,18,527
Sitapur	44,83,992	23,75,264	21,08,728	39,53,208	20,98,123	18,55,085	5,30,784	2,77,141	2,53,643
Hardoi	40,92,845	21,91,442	19,01,403	35,51,039	19,06,147	16,44,892	5,41,806	2,85,295	2,56,511
Unnao	31,08,367	16,30,087	14,78,280	25,76,721	13,51,897	12,24,824	5,31,646	2,78,190	2,53,456
Lucknow	45,89,838	23,94,476	21,95,362	15,50,842	8,13,752	7,37,090	30,38,996	15,80,724	14,58,272
Rae Bareli	34,05,559	17,52,542	16,53,017	30,97,564	15,92,449	15,05,115	3,07,995	1,60,093	1,47,902
Farrukhabad	18,85,204	10,06,240	8,78,964	14,69,019	7,85,301	6,83,718	4,16,185	2,20,939	1,95,246
Kannauj	16,56,616	8,81,776	7,74,840	13,75,775	7,34,245	6,41,530	2,80,841	1,47,531	1,33,310
Etawah	15,81,810	8,45,856	7,35,954	12,15,511	6,52,740	5,62,771	3,66,299	1,93,116	1,73,183
Auraiya	13,79,545	7,40,040	6,39,505	11,45,323	6,16,494	5,28,829	2,34,222	1,23,546	1,10,676

Kanpur Dehat	17,96,184	9,63,255	8,32,929	16,22,761	8,71,508	7,51,253	1,73,423	91,747	81,676
Kanpur Nagar	45,81,268	24,59,806	21,21,462	15,65,623	8,37,260	7,28,363	30,15,645	16,22,546	13,93,099
Jalaun	16,89,974	9,06,092	7,83,882	12,71,074	6,83,656	5,87,418	4,18,900	2,22,436	1,96,464
Jhansi	19,98,603	10,57,436	9,41,167	11,65,119	6,15,629	5,49,490	8,33,484	4,41,807	3,91,677
Lalitpur	12,21,592	6,41,011	5,80,581	10,46,214	5,49,478	4,96,736	1,75,378	91,533	83,845
Hamirpur	11,04,285	5,93,537	5,10,748	8,94,437	4,81,373	4,13,064	2,09,848	1,12,164	97,684
Mahoba	8,75,958	4,66,358	4,09,600	6,90,577	3,68,009	3,22,568	1,85,381	98,349	87,032
Banda	17,99,410	9,65,876	8,33,534	15,23,655	8,19,243	7,04,412	2,75,755	1,46,633	1,29,122
Chitrakoot	9,91,730	5,27,721	4,64,009	8,95,398	4,76,794	4,18,604	96,332	50,927	45,405
Fatehpur	26,32,733	13,84,722	12,48,011	23,10,740	12,15,690	10,95,050	3,21,993	1,69,032	1,52,961
Pratapgarh	32,09,141	16,06,085	16,03,056	30,33,899	15,15,583	15,18,316	1,75,242	90,502	84,740
Kaushambi	15,99,596	8,38,485	7,61,111	14,75,140	7,73,335	7,01,805	1,24,456	65,150	59,306
Allahabad	59,54,391	31,31,807	28,22,584	44,81,518	23,40,959	21,40,559	14,72,873	7,90,848	6,82,025
Bara Banki	32,60,699	17,07,073	15,53,626	29,29,896	15,33,455	13,96,441	3,30,803	1,73,618	1,57,185
Faizabad	24,70,996	12,59,628	12,11,368	21,30,743	10,79,257	10,51,486	3,40,253	1,80,371	1,59,882
Ambedkar Nagar	23,97,888	12,12,410	11,85,478	21,17,158	10,67,762	10,49,396	2,80,730	1,44,648	1,36,082
Sultanpur	37,97,117	19,14,586	18,82,531	35,97,201	18,10,496	17,86,705	1,99,916	1,04,090	95,826
Bahraich	34,87,731	18,43,884	16,43,847	32,03,687	16,95,122	15,08,565	2,84,044	1,48,762	1,35,282
Shrawasti	11,17,361	5,93,897	5,23,464	10,78,712	5,73,681	5,05,031	38,649	20,216	18,433
Balrampur	21,48,665	11,14,721	10,33,944	19,82,274	10,27,943	9,54,331	1,66,391	86,778	79,613
Gonda	34,33,919	17,87,146	16,46,773	32,08,890	16,69,058	15,39,832	2,25,029	1,18,088	1,06,941
Siddharthnagar	25,59,297	12,95,095	12,64,202	23,98,606	12,12,141	11,86,465	1,60,691	82,954	77,737
Basti	24,64,464	12,55,272	12,09,192	23,26,367	11,82,846	11,43,521	1,38,097	72,426	65,671
Sant Kabir Nagar	17,15,183	8,69,656	8,45,527	15,86,652	8,02,609	7,84,043	1,28,531	67,047	61,484
Mahrajganj	26,84,703	13,81,754	13,02,949	25,49,973	13,12,126	12,37,847	1,34,730	69,628	65,102
Gorakhpur	44,40,895	22,77,777	21,63,118	36,04,766	18,38,726	17,66,040	8,36,129	4,39,051	3,97,078
Kushinagar	35,64,544	18,18,055	17,46,489	33,96,437	17,30,377	16,66,060	1,68,107	87,678	80,429
Deoria	31,00,946	15,37,436	15,63,510	27,84,143	13,73,111	14,11,032	3,16,803	1,64,325	1,52,478
Azamgarh	46,13,913	22,85,004	23,28,909	42,20,512	20,82,707	21,37,805	3,93,401	2,02,297	1,91,104
Mau	22,05,968	11,14,709	10,91,259	17,06,760	8,58,843	8,47,917	4,99,208	2,55,866	2,43,342
Ballia	32,39,774	16,72,902	15,66,872	29,35,665	15,14,018	14,21,647	3,04,109	1,58,884	1,45,225
Jaunpur	44,94,204	22,20,465	22,73,739	41,47,624	20,41,217	21,06,407	3,46,580	1,79,248	1,67,332
Ghazipur	36,20,268	18,55,075	17,65,193	33,45,908	17,11,651	16,34,257	2,74,360	1,43,424	1,30,936
Chandauli	19,52,756	10,17,905	9,34,851	17,10,203	8,90,630	8,19,573	2,42,553	1,27,275	1,15,278
Varanasi	36,76,841	19,21,857	17,54,984	20,79,790	10,76,526	10,03,264	15,97,051	8,45,331	7,51,720
Sant Ravidas Nagar (Bhadohi)	15,78,213	8,07,099	7,71,114	13,48,911	6,86,589	6,62,322	2,29,302	1,20,510	1,08,792
Mirzapur	24,96,970	13,12,302	11,84,668	21,49,403	11,27,138	10,22,265	3,47,567	1,85,164	1,62,403
Sonbhadra	18,62,559	9,71,344	8,91,215	15,48,217	8,03,345	7,44,872	3,14,342	1,67,999	1,46,343
Etah	17,74,480	9,47,339	8,27,141	15,06,338	8,05,589	7,00,749	2,68,142	1,41,750	1,26,392
Kanshiram Nagar	14,36,719	7,64,165	6,72,554	11,48,512	6,12,556	5,35,956	2,88,207	1,51,609	1,36,598



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1.6. Linguistical Background

Linguistically, the state comprises of inhabitants of East and Central Indo- Aryan languages. The principal languages spoken in the state are Hindi and Urdu. Hindi is the official language of the state and Urdu is the co-official language. Hindi and Urdu are spoken by 80.16 % population of the state. Bhojpuri is the second frequently spoken language of the state. In addition, varieties of Hindi are spoken across the state like Awadhi, Braj Bhasha, Bundeli, Bagheli and Kanauji. The state is at times called the ' Hindi Heartland' of India.

Hindi began to gain popularity in British India, mainly between 1770 and 1785, with the advent of the Bhakti movement in Uttar Pradesh. The Bhakti movement is also known as the golden period of Hindi literature. The important pillars of Bhakti movement were Surdas, Tulsidas, Jaysi and Kabir. They gave enormous support in the formation of Bhakti literature composed in Hindi which reflected spirituality a lot. Surdas made Braj poetries and sang the songs of Krishna *leela* (divine play). Tulsidas and Jaysi made literary contribution to Awadhi. Tulsidas also wrote in Braj Bhasa. Kabir crossed these language boundaries by repeating words from Braj, Awadhi and Bhojpuri.

The linguistic feature of flexibility is inherent in these languages so they combine with one another and form meaningful literature. It was a literature of protest on the level of language. Persian and Sanskrit languages were challenged powerfully. On the other hand, supporters of 'purity' in Hindi promoted the use of *Tatsama Sabda* (words) from Sanskrit.

Several texts and hymns of Vedas were composed in Uttar Pradesh. Tulsidas wrote much of his Ram Charitmanas. In the 19th and 20th century, Hindi language was modernised by Jaishankar Prasad, Munshi Premchand and others.

1.7 Linguistic Composition of the State

As per the latest census publication of 2011, Uttar Pradesh displayed 101 languages out of 122 languages in India. It includes all the 22 Scheduled languages and 79 Non-Scheduled Languages.

The dichotomy of 'Language' and 'mother tongue' nomenclature in Census publications is co-terminous and both the language and mother tongue data are presented in Census publications. The 'mother tongue' indicates the exclusive entity whereas the language includes the mother tongues/variants grouped under it. The 182 mother tongues being grouped under 101 languages are presented in a classified manner under the category of Scheduled and Non-Scheduled languages.

The details of the speakers of the Scheduled and Non-scheduled languages recorded in Uttar Pradesh state are furnished below as per the latest published data of 2011 Census.

SCHEDULED LANGUAGES	
1 ASSAMESE	10,356
Assamese	10,288
Others	68
2 BENGALI	2,41,007
Bengali	2,40,966
Chakma	18
Haijong/Hajong	8
Rajbangsi	7
Others	8
3 BODO	226
Bodo/Boro	222
Kachari	2
Others	2
4 DOGRI	2,695
Dogri	2,695
5 GUJARATI	15,442
Gujarati	11,938
Gujrao/Gujrau	1,204
Saurashtra/Saurashtri	46
Others	2,254
6 HINDI	18,79,79,055
Awadhi	38,01,743
Baghati/Baghati Pahari	16
Bagheli/Baghel Khandi	2,612
Banjari	2,548
Bhadrawahi	8
Bharmauri/Gaddi	442
Bhojpuri	2,18,44,783
Brajbhasha	7,13,572
Bundeli/Bundel khandi	13,03,940
Chambeali/Chamrali	25
Chhattisgarhi	12,308
Dhundhari	113
Garhwali	22,914
Gawari	15
Gojri/Gujjari/Gujar	1,758
Handuri	2
Haryanvi	16,166
Hindi	16,01,59,977
Jaunpuri/Jaunsari	221
Kangri	48

Khari Boli	16,355
Khortha/Khotta	124
Kulvi	2
Kumauni	11,059
Kurmali Thar	21
Lamani/Lambadi	192
Laria	2
Magadhi/Magahi	1,597
Malvi	32
Mandeali	23
Marwari	5,786
Mewari	17
Mewati	9,234
Nagpuria	417
Nimadi	17
Padari	2
Pahari	2,591
Panch Pargania	64
Pando/Pandwani	112
Puran/Puran Bhasha	15
Rajasthani	13,382
Sadan/Sadri	2,676
Sondwari	4
Surgujia	96
Surjapuri	78
Others	31,946
7 KANNADA	6,435
Badaga	3
Kannada	4,362
Kuruba/Kurumba	15
Prakritha/Prakritha Bhasha	1,560
Others	495
8 KASHMIRI	6,123
Kashmiri	6,123
9 KONKANI	335
Konkani	230
Kudubi/Kudumbi	1
Malwani	22
Nawait	3
Gorboli/Goru/Gorwani	8
Others	71
10 MAITHILI	24,831

Maithili	16,989
Purbi Maithili	2,178
Thati	961
Tharu	4,702
Others	1
11 MALAYALAM	24,450
Malayalam	24,338
Others	112
12 MANIPURI	1,204
Manipuri	1,203
Others	1
13 MARATHI	24,280
Marathi	24,115
Others	165
14 NEPALI	18,743
Nepali	18,734
Others	9
15 ODIA	24,729
Bhatri	500
Bhuiya/Bhuyan [Ori]	101
Odia	24,071
Sambalpuri	10
Others	47
16 PUNJABI	5,08,736
Bagri	57
Bilaspuri Kahluri	8
Punjabi	5,08,599
Others	72
17 SANSKRIT	3,062
Sanskrit	3,062
18 SANTALI	858
Karmali	1
Mahili	16
Santali	701
Others	140
19 SINDHI	28,952
Kachchhi	12
Sindhi	28,937
Others	3

20 TAMIL	14,444
Kaikadi	7
Tamil	14,426
Others	11
21 TELUGU	13,977
Telugu	13,918
Others	59
22 URDU	1,08,20,232
Urdu	1,07,93,391
Bhansari	20,993
Others	5,848
NON-SCHEDULED LANGUAGES	
23 ADI	75
Adi	25
Adi Gallong/Gallong	27
Talgalo	20
Others	3
24 AFGHANI/KABULI/PASHTO	171
Afghani/Kabuli/Pashto	10
Others	161
25 ANAL	9
Anal	6
Others	3
26 ANGAMI	14
Angami	12
Others	2
27 AO	24
Ao	19
Mongsen	4
Others	1
28 ARABIC/ARBI	7,693
Arabic/Arbi	7,693
29 BALTI	3
Balti	3
30 BHILI/BHILODI	1,283
Baori	356
Barel	9
Bhili/Bhilodi	5
Chodhari	1
Dhodia	7
Gamti/Gavit	1

Garasia	5
Kokna/Kokni/Kukna	128
Tadavi	602
Vasava	3
Wagdi	1
30 Others	165
31 BHOTIA	276
Bhotia	234
31 Others	42
32 BHUMIJ	55
Others	55
33 BISHNUPURIYA	10
Bishnupriya Manipuri/Manipuri Bishnupriya	9
Others	1
34 CHANG	2
Chang	2
35 COORGI/KODAGU	18
Coorgi/Kodagu	17
Kodava	1
36 DIMASA	26
Dimasa	4
Others	22
37 ENGLISH	13,085
English	13,085
38 GADABA	5
Gadaba	4
Others	1
39 GANGTE	9
Gangte	9
40 GARO	27
Garo	24
Others	3
41 GONDI	5,768
Dorli	17
Gondi	4,832
Maria/ Muria	40
Others	879
42 HALABI	35
Halabi	35
43 HO	102
Ho	83
Lohara	19

44 KABUI	12
Kabui	4
Rongmei	8
45 KARBI/MIKIR	4
Karbi/Mikir	4
46 KHANDESHI	475
Ahirani	269
Gujari	206
47 KHARIA	185
Kharia	171
Others	14
48 KHASI	50
Khasi	47
Others	3
49 KHEZHA	2
Others	2
50 KHOND/KONDH	8
Khond/Kondh	7
Kuvi	1
51 KINNAURI	14
Kinnauri	8
Others	6
52 KISAN	4
Kisan	4
53 KOCH	2
Koch	2
54 KOLAMI	1
Kolami	1
55 KOM	1
Kom	1
56 KONDA	20
Kodu	20
57 KORKU	2
Others	2
58 KORWA	17
Koraku	1
Others	16
59 KUKI	153
Kuki	153
60 KURUKH/ORAOON	4,495
Kurukh/Oraon	4,300

Others	195
61 LADAKHI	79
Ladakhi	79
62 LAHAULI	2
Lahauli	1
Others	1
63 LAHNDA	1,000
Bahawal Puri	16
Hindi Multani	444
Others	540
64 LAKHER	12
Mara	12
65 LEPCHA	7
Lepcha	7
66 LIMBU	5
Limbu	5
67 LOTH	27
Lotha	27
68 LUSHAI/MIZO	228
Lushai/Mizo	228
69 MALTO	2
Pahariya	2
70 MAO	17
Mao	17
71 MIRI/MISHING	6
Miri/Mishing	6
72 MISHMI	274
Mishmi	2
Others	272
73 MOGH	3
Mogh	3
74 MONPA	7
Monpa	7
75 MUNDA	1,415
Kol	6
Munda	249
Others	1,160
76 MUNDARI	277
Mundari	277
77 NISSI/DAFLA	47
Apatani	2
Nissi/Dafla	13

Tagin	8
Others	24
78 NOCTE	1
Nocte	1
79 PAITE	9
Paite	9
80 PARJI	21
Dhurwa	13
Others	8
81 PHOM	2
Phom	2
82 POCHURY	1
Pochury	1
83 RABHA	3
Rabha	3
84 RAI	12
Rai	12
85 RENGMA	1
Rengma	1
86 SAVARA	13
Savara	13
87 SEMA	15
Sema	15
88 SHERPA	7
Sherpa	7
89 SHINA	11
Shina	11
90 TANGKHUL	13
Tangkhul	13
91 TANGSA	1
Others	1
92 THADO	197
Thado	196
Others	1
93 TIBETAN	315
Tibetan	196
Purkhi	113
Others	6
94 TRIPURI	63
Kokbarak	30
Reang	1
Tripuri	32

95 TULU	102
Tulu	49
Others	53
96 VAIPHEI	2
Vaiphei	2
97 WANCHO	11
Wancho	11
98 YIMCHUNGRE	7
Yimchungre	7
99 ZEMI	3
Zemi	1
Others	2
100 ZOU	8

1.7. The Languages Surveyed in Uttar Pradesh

Hindi language and its varieties under the Indo Aryan language family are mostly spoken in Uttar Pradesh.

The languages/mother tongues surveyed in Uttar Pradesh are - 1. Awadhi 2. Dehati 3. Khariboli 4. Pratapgarhi 5. Rathori 6. Hindi 7. Hamirpuri 8. Malaham 9. Malyani 10. Gurmukhi 11. Urtia 12. Giharo.

All the above, except Gurmukhi, are mother tongues of Hindi. Gurmukhi has linguistic affinity with Punjabi and it is grouped under Punjabi.

Hindi as a language

State/District	Population	Rural	Urban
UTTAR PRADESH	18,79,79,055	14,99,36,334	3,80,42,721
Saharanpur	28,00,893	20,89,995	7,10,898
Muzaffarnagar	36,05,593	26,65,383	9,40,210
Bijnor	28,10,866	23,36,281	4,74,585
Moradabad	39,35,830	28,14,481	11,21,349
Rampur	17,28,157	14,30,161	2,97,996
Jyotiba Phule Nagar	14,73,961	12,53,466	2,20,495
Meerut	29,80,601	15,39,732	14,40,869
Baghpat	12,68,941	10,04,024	2,64,917
Ghaziabad	42,58,481	12,67,667	29,90,814
Gautam Buddha Nagar	15,60,401	6,65,055	8,95,346
Bulandshahr	32,64,816	25,45,475	7,19,341

Aligarh	34,72,840	24,38,575	10,34,265
Mahamaya Nagar	15,44,698	12,28,242	3,16,456
Mathura	25,06,265	17,80,513	7,25,752
Agra	43,63,401	23,92,629	19,70,772
Firozabad	24,31,236	16,59,279	7,71,957
Mainpuri	18,61,646	15,77,920	2,83,726
Budaun	33,60,846	29,13,754	4,47,092
Bareilly	40,37,489	27,16,947	13,20,542
Pilibhit	17,09,784	14,18,170	2,91,614
Shahjahanpur	27,44,682	22,91,205	4,53,477
Kheri	38,12,137	34,00,607	4,11,530
Sitapur	42,18,825	38,16,292	4,02,533
Hardoi	39,88,458	35,20,254	4,68,204
Unnao	30,37,579	25,41,388	4,96,191
Lucknow	41,85,409	15,06,626	26,78,783
Rae Bareli	33,47,944	30,71,569	2,76,375
Farrukhabad	17,92,467	14,24,971	3,67,496
Kannauj	16,08,280	13,54,820	2,53,460
Etawah	15,53,274	12,12,992	3,40,282
Auraiya	13,59,397	11,40,077	2,19,320
Kanpur Dehat	17,77,956	16,08,541	1,69,415
Kanpur Nagar	42,43,837	15,48,898	26,94,939
Jalaun	16,67,322	12,64,463	4,02,859
Jhansi	19,73,862	11,63,790	8,10,072
Lalitpur	12,11,618	10,43,587	1,68,031
Hamirpur	10,88,296	8,90,700	1,97,596
Mahoba	8,68,885	6,87,178	1,81,707
Banda	17,71,711	15,06,096	2,65,615
Chitrakoot	9,90,460	8,94,438	96,022
Fatehpur	25,66,713	22,72,602	2,94,111
Pratapgarh	31,06,963	29,54,996	1,51,967
Kaushambi	15,80,625	14,61,414	1,19,211
Allahabad	57,74,715	44,33,448	13,41,267
Bara Banki	30,56,474	28,12,377	2,44,097
Faizabad	23,87,443	20,91,835	2,95,608
Ambedkar Nagar	22,01,789	20,25,987	1,75,802
Sultanpur	36,76,639	35,05,506	1,71,133
Bahraich	32,33,483	30,30,128	2,03,355
Shrawasti	11,03,758	10,68,676	35,082

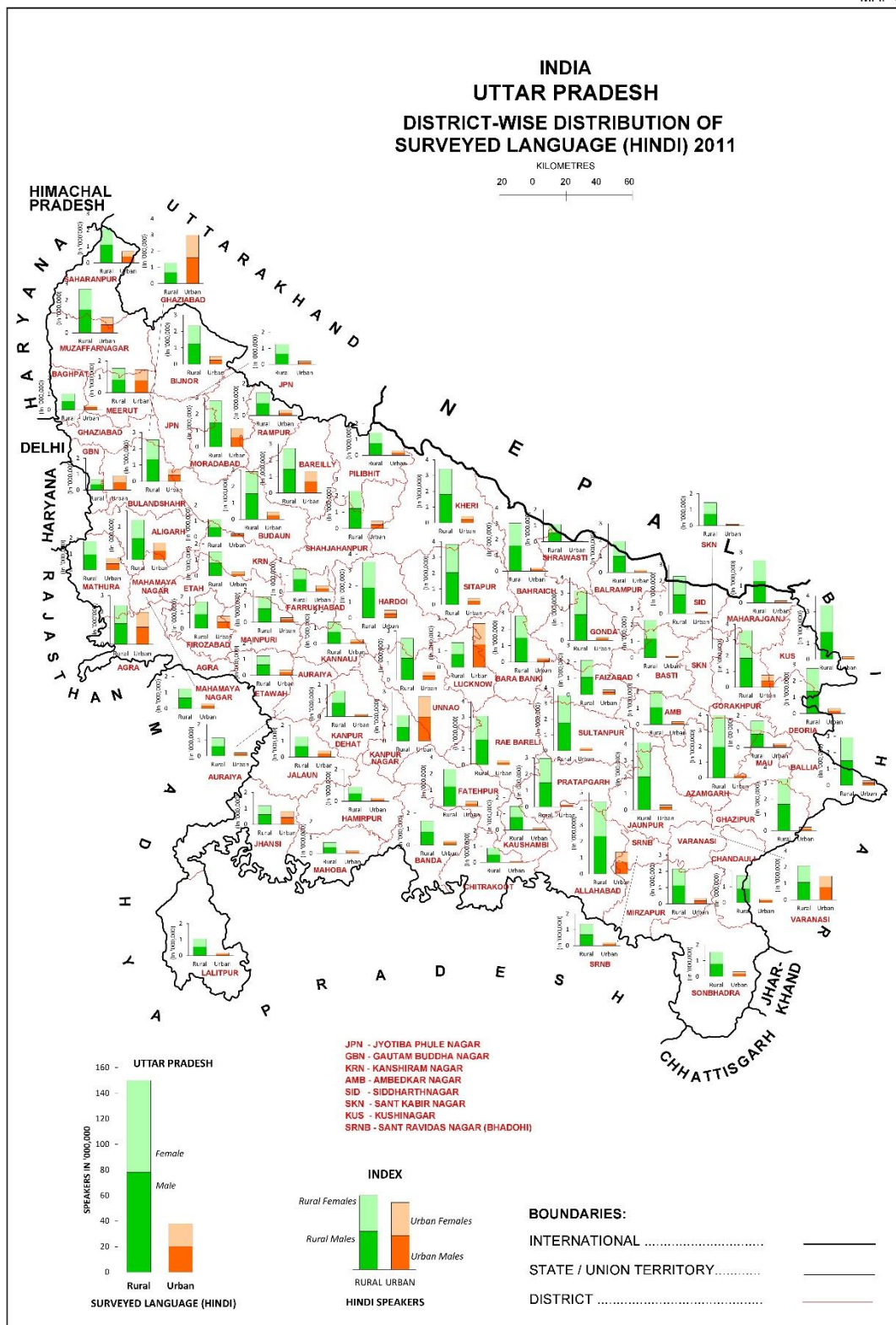
Balrampur	20,59,617	19,10,992	1,48,625
Gonda	33,38,557	31,47,641	1,90,916
Siddharthnagar	24,36,917	22,91,026	1,45,891
Basti	24,09,547	22,82,961	1,26,586
Sant Kabir Nagar	15,50,880	14,40,519	1,10,361
Mahrajganj	26,57,271	25,27,082	1,30,189
Gorakhpur	43,44,347	35,87,781	7,56,566
Kushinagar	35,46,538	33,80,739	1,65,799
Deoria	30,55,034	27,49,437	3,05,597
Azamgarh	42,33,108	39,69,177	2,63,931
Mau	19,06,532	16,59,629	2,46,903
Ballia	32,06,561	29,17,911	2,88,650
Jaunpur	44,04,282	40,97,450	3,06,832
Ghazipur	35,17,078	32,83,969	2,33,109
Chandauli	19,27,447	16,94,892	2,32,555
Varanasi	35,27,561	20,74,935	14,52,626
Sant Ravidas Nagar (Bhadohi)	15,42,862	13,42,959	1,99,903
Mirzapur	24,86,101	21,44,150	3,41,951
Sonbhadra	18,43,673	15,38,386	3,05,287
Etah	17,61,199	15,02,408	2,58,791
Kanshiram Nagar	13,16,197	11,09,080	2,07,117

Hindi Mother Tongue

State/District	Person	Rural	Urban
UTTAR PRADESH	16,01,59,977	12,38,66,244	3,62,93,733
Allahabad	56,51,508	43,15,687	13,35,821
Agra	43,03,233	23,76,796	19,26,437
Kanpur Nagar	42,34,664	15,47,301	26,87,363
Ghaziabad	42,25,320	12,66,080	29,59,240
Sitapur	41,75,470	37,75,994	3,99,476
Jaunpur	41,63,927	38,59,638	3,04,289
Lucknow	41,63,409	14,94,099	26,69,310
Bareilly	40,33,435	27,15,054	13,18,381
Hardoi	39,87,645	35,19,519	4,68,126
Moradabad	39,34,937	28,14,103	11,20,834
Kheri	37,49,802	33,38,559	4,11,243

Muzaffarnagar	36,02,700	26,62,877	9,39,823
Aligarh	33,99,752	23,77,508	10,22,244
Budaun	33,59,520	29,13,029	4,46,491
Bulandshahr	32,62,333	25,43,787	7,18,546
Rae Bareli	32,09,172	29,35,027	2,74,145
Bahraich	31,16,657	29,15,845	2,00,812
Unnao	30,33,529	25,37,553	4,95,976
Bara Banki	29,84,773	27,41,478	2,43,295
Meerut	29,77,991	15,39,315	14,38,676
Pratapgarh	29,11,957	27,60,974	1,50,983
Bijnor	2,80,47,64	23,30,409	4,74,355
Varanasi	2,80,12,56	14,88,030	13,13,226
Saharanpur	27,95,740	20,86,561	7,09,179
Gonda	27,82,507	26,00,190	1,82,317
Sultanpur	27,81,822	26,24,863	1,56,959
Shahjahanpur	27,41,529	22,88,616	4,52,913
Fatehpur	25,66,474	22,72,383	2,94,091
Firozabad	24,23,973	16,52,920	7,71,053
Gorakhpur	20,64,060	14,19,662	6,44,398
Siddharthnagar	20,60,575	19,22,833	1,37,742
Faizabad	20,50,978	17,74,422	2,76,556
Mirzapur	20,21,302	16,99,990	3,21,312
Basti	19,77,612	18,57,383	1,20,229
Mathura	19,15,564	12,49,795	6,65,769
Jhansi	19,05,568	11,14,638	7,90,930
Ambedkar Nagar	19,05,077	17,36,529	1,68,548
Balrampur	18,74,212	17,28,436	1,45,776
Mainpuri	18,60,610	15,76,994	2,83,616
Farrukhabad	17,90,275	14,22,983	3,67,292
Kanpur Dehat	17,77,683	16,08,275	1,69,408
Etah	17,57,398	14,98,645	2,58,753
Rampur	17,25,076	14,27,799	2,97,277
Banda	17,24,093	14,61,260	2,62,833
Pilibhit	16,86,357	13,95,085	2,91,272
Jalaun	16,33,170	12,49,512	3,83,658
Azamgarh	16,28,125	14,82,767	1,45,358
Kannauj	16,00,677	13,50,664	2,50,013
Chandauli	15,82,910	13,65,265	2,17,645
Kaushambi	15,76,776	14,57,566	1,19,210

Sonbhadra	15,62,925	13,09,453	2,53,472
Etawah	15,53,087	12,12,849	3,40,238
Mahamaya Nagar	15,35,921	12,21,893	3,14,028
Gautam Buddha Nagar	15,32,098	6,62,751	8,69,347
Jyotiba Phule Nagar	14,73,291	12,52,908	2,20,383
Auraiya	13,59,181	11,39,961	2,19,220
Kanshiram Nagar	13,13,885	11,06,867	2,07,018
Baghpat	12,60,602	9,95,975	2,64,627
Ghazipur	11,21,377	9,43,015	1,78,362
Mahrajganj	10,64,576	9,99,718	64,858
Sant Ravidas Nagar (Bhadohi)	10,47,672	8,73,357	1,74,315
Lalitpur	9,96,864	8,41,717	1,55,147
Shrawasti	9,78,294	9,44,911	33,383
Kushinagar	7,76,590	6,86,372	90,218
Hamirpur	7,33,612	5,90,876	1,42,736
Mau	7,30,425	5,87,259	1,43,166
Chitrakoot	6,80,442	6,35,337	45,105
Sant Kabir Nagar	6,24,655	5,63,042	61,613
Mahoba	5,73,734	4,50,779	1,22,955
Ballia	5,49,938	4,70,499	79,439
Deoria	3,92,911	2,82,007	1,10,904



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Khari Boli, a Mother Tongue under Hindi

State/District	Population	Rural	Urban
UTTAR PRADESH	16,355	13,214	3,141
Baghpat	7,573	7,519	54
Ballia	1,018	45	973
Azamgarh	740	728	12
Varanasi	703	212	491
Sonbhadra	664	603	61
Bulandshahr	625	625	0
Mirzapur	589	302	287
Gorakhpur	526	45	481
Muzaffarnagar	509	509	0
Agra	473	465	8
Kheri	423	423	0
Mainpuri	406	406	0
Mathura	170	140	30
Fatehpur	160	160	0
Deoria	149	12	137
Pilibhit	142	142	0
Hamirpur	138	105	33
Jhansi	121	11	110
Mahrajganj	120	34	86
Lalitpur	107	98	9
Mau	93	89	4
Gonda	90	3	87
Ghaziabad	82	0	82
Sultanpur	79	79	0
Aligarh	69	39	30
Unnao	69	69	0
Lucknow	67	22	45
Allahabad	59	54	5
Ghazipur	56	1	55
Meerut	44	44	0
Gautam Buddha Nagar	43	19	24
Sant Kabir Nagar	36	36	0
Rae Bareli	33	33	0
Chitrakoot	26	0	26
Ambedkar Nagar	26	25	1
Jyotiba Phule Nagar	24	24	0

Siddharthnagar	18	18	0
Pratapgarh	14	14	0
Kushinagar	11	11	0
Rampur	10	7	3
Shrawasti	10	10	0
Saharanpur	7	7	0
Chandauli	7	7	0
Sant Ravidas Nagar (Bhadohi)	5	5	0
Mahoba	4	3	1
Bahraich	4	2	2
Kanpur Nagar	3	0	3
Kannauj	2	2	0
Faizabad	2	2	0
Balrampur	2	2	0
Etah	2	1	1
Mahamaya Nagar	1	1	0
Jalaun	1	1	0

Awadhi, a Mother Tongue under Hindi

State/District	Population	Rural	Urban
UTTAR PRADESH	38,01,743	37,15,556	86,187
Sultanpur	8,88,371	8,74,320	14,051
Gonda	5,50,776	5,42,931	7,845
Basti	3,52,135	3,46,301	5,834
Faizabad	3,33,602	3,14,818	18,784
Ambedkar Nagar	2,56,822	2,50,630	6,192
Lambhua	2,41,115	2,40,223	892
Colonelganj	2,34,202	2,29,944	4,258
Basti	2,14,683	2,08,853	5,830
Sant Ravidas Nagar (Bhadohi)	2,05,357	1,97,054	8,303
Pratapgarh	1,93,030	1,92,054	976
Bikapur	1,86,089	1,79,808	6,281
Balrampur	1,85,050	1,82,209	2,841
Jaisinghpur	1,48,205	1,48,205	0
Rae Bareli	1,37,411	1,35,611	1,800
Kadipur	1,35,450	1,32,418	3,032
Gonda	1,34,917	1,33,007	1,910
Amethi	1,34,244	1,32,908	1,336
Shrawasti	1,24,837	1,23,149	1,688

Siddharthnagar	1,18,109	1,16,462	1,647
Tulsipur	1,17,008	1,14,295	2,713
Gauriganj	1,16,135	1,16,135	0
Allahabad	1,10,468	1,07,670	2,798
Gyanpur	1,06,915	1,01,605	5,310
Mankapur	1,03,011	1,02,010	1,001
Ikauna	89,180	87,594	1,586
Bhadohi	81,152	78,159	2,993
Tarabganj	78,646	77,970	676
Jaunpur	77,640	77,638	2
Harraiya	73,346	73,342	4
Tanda	71,823	70,761	1,062
Akbarpur	70,264	65,895	4,369
Bara Banki	68,876	68,218	658
Musafirkhana	67,272	65,219	2,053
Faizabad	66,080	53,591	12,489
Itwa	65,158	63,875	1,283
Bahraich	63,380	60,993	2,387
Bhiti	61,973	61,973	0
Bhanpur	61,819	61,819	0
Phulpur	59,973	59,123	850
Patti	57,317	57,317	0
Kunda	57,267	57,267	0
Rae Bareli	46,961	45,694	1,267
Sultanpur	45,950	39,212	6,738
Milkipur	45,079	45,079	0
Lalganj	43,786	43,786	0
Utraula	43,730	43,691	39
Haidergarh	39,028	38,456	572
Azamgarh	38,206	37,701	505
Sitapur	37,297	34,355	2,942
Bhinga	35,657	35,555	102
Tiloi	34,124	34,124	0
Soraon	33,959	33,942	17
Sohawal	32,309	32,295	14
Maharajganj	32,270	31,737	533
Kaiserganj	27,307	26,581	726
Nanpara	26,768	26,766	2
Allapur	26,398	26,398	0

Jalalpur	26,364	25,603	761
Phulpur	25,535	25,535	0
Mahmudabad	25,260	22,318	2,942
Balrampur	24,312	24,223	89
Shohratgarh	23,975	23,961	14
Pratapgarh	22,931	21,955	976
Salon	21,418	21,418	0
Machhlishahr	21,326	21,326	0
Mariahu	20,777	20,777	0
Jaunpur	17,445	17,443	2
Aurai	17,290	17,290	0
Bansi	15,804	15,596	208
Banda	11,991	11,986	5
Naraini	11,947	11,947	0
Raniganj	11,729	11,729	0
Ramsanehighat	11,123	11,089	34
Lucknow	10,881	9,609	1,272
Burhanpur	9,854	9,370	484
Badlapur	9,348	9,348	0
Domariyaganj	8,863	8,863	0
Fatehpur	7,437	7,437	0
Shahganj	7,304	7,304	0
Misrikh	7,300	7,300	0
Handia	7,211	7,211	0
Bahraich	6,521	4,862	1,659
Kheri	6,124	6,118	6
Chitrakoot	5,633	3,223	2,410
Bakshi Ka Talab	5,606	5,507	99
Sant Kabir Nagar	5,266	5,266	0
Nawabganj	4,963	4,911	52
Sirauli Gauspur	4,754	4,754	0
Sonbhadra	4,656	4,373	283
Mau	4,573	2,260	2,313
Robertsganj	4,435	4,366	69
Mirzapur	4,349	4,345	4
Naugarh	4,309	4,167	142
Chunar	4,273	4,269	4
Rudauli	4,045	4,045	0
Meja	4,033	4,033	0

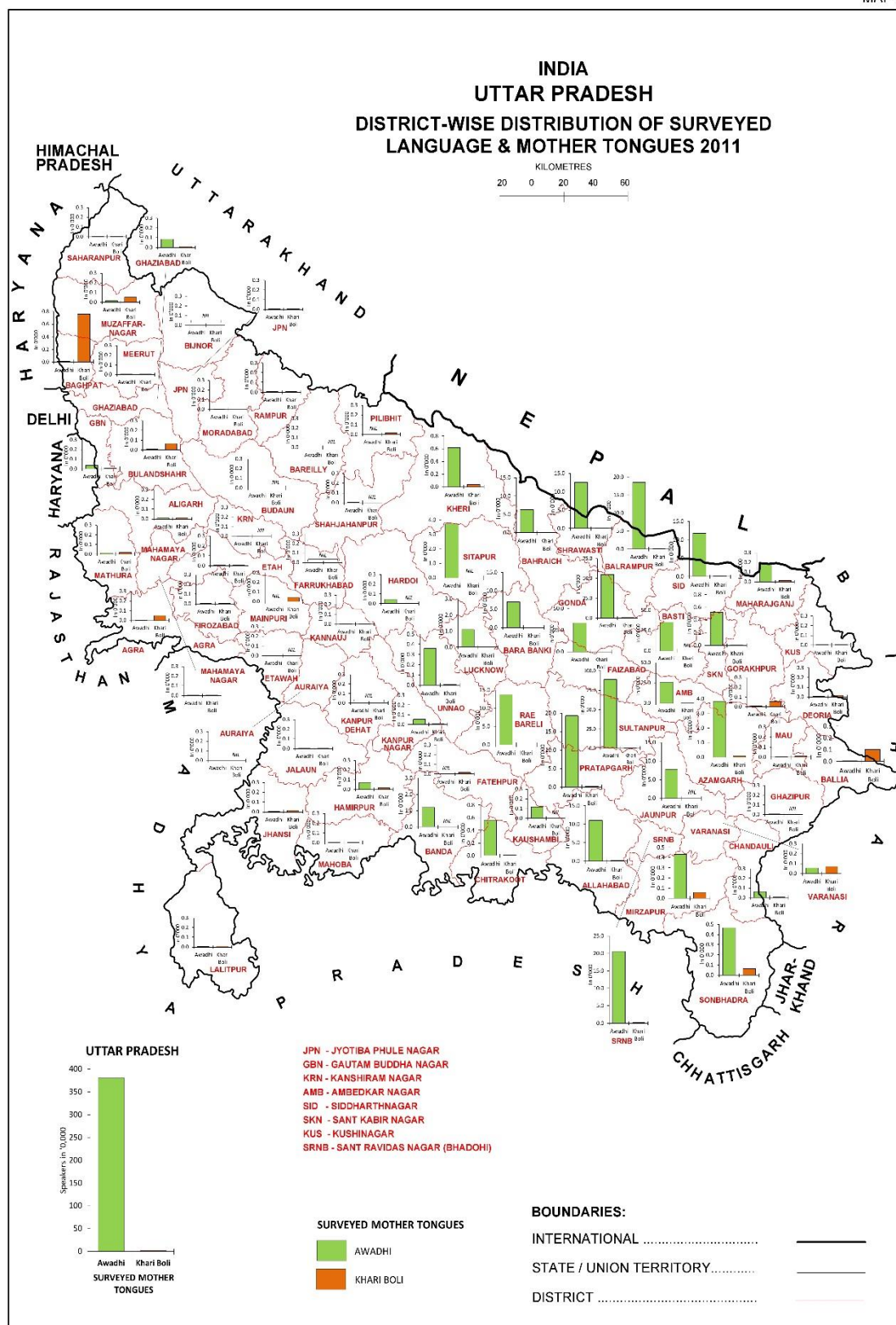
Dhaurahara	4,001	4,001	0
Unnao	3,575	3,473	102
Lucknow	2,914	1,741	1,173
Mahasi	2,784	2,784	0
Allahabad	2,778	849	1,929
Rudhauri	2,287	2,287	0
Malihabad	2,217	2,217	0
Ghanghata	2,149	2,149	0
Mehnagar	2,143	2,143	0
Khalilabad	2,015	2,015	0
Mahrajganj	1,871	1,871	0
Sitapur	1,833	1,833	0
Unchahar	1,579	1,579	0
Laharpur	1,577	1,577	0
Ramnagar	1,571	1,571	0
Maharajganj	1,555	1,555	0
Safipur	1,543	1,441	102
Kerakat	1,440	1,440	0
Karchhana	1,404	1,402	2
Kaushambi	1,199	1,199	0
Mehdawal	1,102	1,102	0
Karwi	1,060	963	97
Chail	966	966	0
Gola Gokaran Nath	957	957	0
Koraon	899	899	0
Ghaziabad	847	11	836
Hasanganj	835	835	0
Ghaziabad	832	0	832
Unnao	804	804	0
Lalganj	739	739	0
Hamirpur	683	386	297
Hamirpur	681	384	297
Sidhauri	664	664	0
Biswan	663	663	0
Chandauli	636	630	6
Chakia	630	630	0
Nizamabad	588	588	0
Varanasi	564	152	412
Varanasi	554	142	412

Kanpur Nagar	544	0	544
Kanpur	544	0	544
Mohammdi	434	434	0
Hardoi	421	421	0
Sandila	421	421	0
Purwa	393	393	0
Gautam Buddha Nagar	370	0	370
Dadri	364	0	364
Dalmau	320	320	0
Nautanwa	316	316	0
Palia	267	267	0
Lakhimpur	251	245	6
Nighasan	214	214	0
Bara	211	211	0
Mohanlalganj	144	144	0
Muzaffarnagar	128	128	0
Kairana	126	126	0
Ghorawal	126	7	119
Mathura	122	36	86
Manjhanpur	117	117	0
Sirathu	116	116	0
Dudhi	95	0	95
Chhata	90	6	84
Mirzapur	76	76	0
Deoria	72	7	65
Deoria	70	5	65
Lalganj	65	65	0
Ghazipur	61	58	3
Aligarh	59	12	47
Koil	57	10	47
Agra	53	0	53
Agra	53	0	53
Saidpur	49	49	0
Gorakhpur	37	18	19
Banda	29	29	0
Gorakhpur	25	6	19
Jalaun	23	22	1
Bulandshahr	22	11	11
Azamgarh	21	0	21

Rampur	20	18	2
Bilaspur	18	18	0
Mathura	18	16	2
Kalpi	18	18	0
Meerut	16	0	16
Meerut	16	0	16
Baghpat	16	16	0
Baraut	16	16	0
Bareilly	16	4	12
Debai	15	4	11
Mat	14	14	0
Kushinagar	14	10	4
Jhansi	13	0	13
Firozabad	12	12	0
Firozabad	12	12	0
Hapur	10	6	4
Padrauna	10	6	4
Pindra	10	10	0
Saharanpur	9	0	9
Saharanpur	9	0	9
Budaun	9	0	9
Bareilly	9	3	6
Lalitpur	9	1	8
Mau	9	0	9
Maunath Bhanjan	9	0	9
Auraiya	8	8	0
Bidhuna	8	8	0
Jhansi	8	0	8
Lalitpur	8	0	8
Atarra	8	3	5
Moradabad	7	0	7
Baberu	7	7	0
Khajni	7	7	0
Ballia	7	7	0
Gautam Buddha Nagar	6	0	6
Sikandrabad	6	6	0
Baheri	6	0	6
Etawah	6	1	5
Ballia	6	6	0

Zamania	6	6	0
Chandauli	6	0	6
Moradabad	5	0	5
Garhmukteshwar	5	5	0
Mahamaya Nagar	5	2	3
Sahaswan	5	0	5
Etawah	5	0	5
Moth	5	0	5
Budaun	4	0	4
Sahjanwa	4	4	0
Hata	4	4	0
Etah	4	4	0
Jalesar	4	4	0
Hathras	3	0	3
Jalaun	3	3	0
Mahoba	3	1	2
Ghazipur	3	1	2
Mohammadabad	3	2	1
Sambhal	2	0	2
Rampur	2	0	2
Gabhana	2	2	0
Sadabad	2	2	0
Shahjahanpur	2	2	0
Kannauj	2	0	2
Tirwa	2	0	2
Mahoba	2	0	2
Muzaffarnagar	1	1	0
Budhana	1	1	0
Jyotiba Phule Nagar	1	0	1
Dhanaura	1	0	1
Anupshahr	1	1	0
Faridpur	1	1	0
Shahjahanpur	1	1	0
Jalalabad	1	1	0
Bharthana	1	1	0
Madhogarh	1	0	1
Orai	1	1	0
Talbehat	1	1	0
Sarila	1	1	0

Maudaha	1	1	0
Charkhari	1	1	0
Chauri Chaura	1	1	0
Rudrapur	1	1	0
Barhaj	1	1	0
Rasra	1	1	0
Kanshiram Nagar	1	1	0
Patiyali	1	1	0



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1.8. Brief Note on the Languages Surveyed in the Volume

Hindi

The word 'Hindi' originates from the Sanskrit name '*Sindhu*' for river Indus. In 5th century, the Persians called the region '*Hindu*' and the people were called '*Hinduya*.' Word initial 's' is written with 'h' in Old Persian. Thus, the word '*Hind*' began to be used as a synonym for India. From '*Hind*' the Greek name '*Indica*' and the English name '*India*' evolved. All the languages spoken in '*Hind*' nation - Sanskrit, Pali, Prakrit - came to be known as '**Hindi**'.

Ferdowsi, the 10th century Persian poet, in *Shahnameh* (Book of Kings) uses the words '*Hind*', '*Hindavi*', '*Hindu*' and 'Hindustan'. In *Tuzk-e-Babri* (Baburnama), Babur refers to a language '*Hindustani*' - he used it in the sense to denote 'the language of Hindustan' and not to denote a specific language.

In the middle ages, Indian Persian writers made a difference between Hindi and other spoken languages. This difference is noticed in Amir Khusro's *Masnavi Nur Sipihr* (1318) and Abul Fazl's *Ain-e-Akhbari*. Khusro used both '*Hindvi*' and '*Hindi*' both in the sense of language of India and for the language around Delhi.

Hindi was the language of the common man. This language has several names such as - Hindi, Hindvi, Urdu, Hindui, Rekhta, Hindustani, Dehalvi, Aagri etc. In Hindustani, there are both Sanskrit and Persian words and can be written in both Devanagari and Persian script. Urdu is another variety of Hindi that uses Persian words and can only be written in Persian script. Hindi uses Sanskrit words and can be written in Devanagari script. 51 mother tongues are grouped in Hindi Language as per Census 2011.

Linguistically Hindi may be divided into 5 dialect regions according as shown in the table below.

Dialect group	Dialects
1. Western Hindi	
(Haryana, Delhi, western Uttar Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh)	Khari Boli
	Brajbhasha
	Haryanvi
	Bundeli
	Kannauji
2. Eastern Hindi	Awadhi
(Uttar Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh, Chhattisgarh)	Bagheli
	Kannauji

3. Rajasthani Hindi	Marwari (Western Rajasthani)
Rajasthan	Jaipuri (Eastern Rajasthani)
	Mewati (Northern Rajasthani)
	Malwi (Southern Rajasthani)
4. Pahari Hindi	
Himachal Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh, Uttarakhand	Nepali (Eastern Pahari)
	Kumauni, Gadhwalī (Central Pahari)
	Western Pahari
5. Bihari Hindi	Bhojpuri
Uttar Pradesh, Bihar	Magahi

Awadhi

The total number of Awadhi speakers is 38,50,906 as per Census 2011. In the linguistic map of Uttar Pradesh, Awadhi lies between Kannauji and Bundeli of Shaurasheni Apabhramsha and Bhojpuri of Magadha Apabhramsha. Awadhi is closer to the Hindi variants of the east. Its linguistic features show the influence of Bhojpuri. Awadhi, in pure form is spoken in Lakhimpur Khiri district, followed by Sitapur district. The highest population of Awadhi speaking people are in Sultanpur district followed by Gonda, Basti, Faizabad, Ambedkar Nagar districts etc. At the southern border Awadhi merges into Chhattisgarhi. In the northern border of Uttar Pradesh with Nepal, Awadhi is spoken and also used in compositions.

Linguistically Bagheli is close to Awadhi. It is considered to be a form of Awadhi. A large number of Awadhi speakers live, in addition to the terai region of Nepal, in the islands of Fiji and Suriname. Here in this case Hindi is influenced by Awadhi.

The oldest prose literature in Awadhi are *Raurbel*, written in 11th century and *Uktivyakti Prakaran* written in 12th century by Damodardas Pundit. Awadhi is also used in Sandesh Sashak by Abdul Rehman and in the work of Kabir. In the 14th century, the epic *Chandayan* was composed in Awadhi. In the 16th century, *Ramcharitmanas* was composed in Awadhi. It was due to this work by Tulsidas that Awadhi gained importance.

A lot of Sufi literature is in Awadhi due to the establishment of Mughal rule in north India. Sufi poets were seen to be bridging the gap between Hindus and Muslims. They combined famous stories of Indian society with the Masnavi style of Persian.

Awadhi is rich in moral and folk literature as well. Ghagh's moral verses are also found in rural areas. Rahim is an important poet in this regard. The folk literature comprises of songs of labour, songs of different castes, songs sung at different ceremonies and songs centered on traditions of women.

The important names in modern Awadhi literatures are Vanshidhar Shukla, Balbhadra Prasad Dixit 'Padhis', Chandra Bhushan Trivedi 'Ramai Kaka', Dwarika Prasad Mishra, Guru Prasad Singh 'Mrigesh', Vishwanath Pathak, Trilochan Shastri, Shyam sunder Madhup, Bekal Utsahi, Paras Bhramar, Vikal Gondavi, Jumai Khan Azad and Aadya Prasad 'Unmatt'.

Awadhi is not projected to such an extent in the media as other languages like Bhojpuri, Chhattisgarhi and Maithili. On the internet there are a few individual efforts but there is no largescale government or non-government efforts. Four Awadhi blogs are active on the internet for the past few years - *Majheriya Kala* by Pankaj Shukla, *Chireyanat Palaka* by Bharatendu Mishra, *Awadhi Prasang* by Anurag and *Awadhi Kai Ardhan* by Amarendra Nath Tripathi. Two Awadhi groups are active on the facebook namely *Awadha-Awadhi* and Chiraiya.

Khari boli

Khari Boli or Kauravi of western Hindi is the basis of modern literary Hindi. It is also called Hindustani, Janpadiya Hindustani, Sirhindi and Vernacular Hindi. 'Khari' means 'purity.' There has been a long tradition of literary composition starting from Amir Khusro and progressing through the Bharatendu and Dwivedi eras, Chayavadi period, progressive period, and through experimental and contemporary writers. As on today, other than literature, it is being used in science, administration, law and other fields. As a result, the vocabulary and registers are continuously expanding.

1.7. The Status of Bilingualism/Trilingualism of the Languages Surveyed

According to the latest published Census data 2011 the status of bilingualism/trilingualism in respect of Hindi language at the state level and All-India level are provided herewith in the form of table format.

Bilingualism & Trilingualism of Relevant Languages in Uttar Pradesh-2011

Language	Total Speakers	Bilinguals		Trilinguals	
		Language of Bilingualism	Strength	Language of Trilingualism	Strength
1	2	3	4	5	6
Hindi	18,79,79,055				
		Assamese	1,402		
				English	128
				Bengali	64
				Punjabi	13
				Urdu	12
				Nepali	10
				Gujarati	4

				Sanskrit	2
				Bodo	1
				Maithili	1
				Manipuri	1
				Marathi	1
				Sindhi	1
				Tamil	1
				Arabic/Arbi	1
				Others	1
		Bengali	65,095		
				English	5,948
				Urdu	269
				Punjabi	121
				Sanskrit	109
				Assamese	62
				Gujarati	59
				Nepali	36
				Marathi	34
				Arabic/Arbi	23
				Telugu	17
				Odia	16
				Tamil	13
				Manipuri	8
				Maithili	6
				Malayalam	5
				Sindhi	2
				Bodo	1
				Kannada	1
				Santali	1
				Adi	1
				Khasi	1
				Others	72
		Bodo	8		
				English	1
		Dogri	422		
				English	88
				Punjabi	30
				Urdu	3
				Sanskrit	2
		Gujarati	9,532		
				English	926

			Marathi	155
			Urdu	50
			Punjabi	38
			Bengali	35
			Sanskrit	28
			Arabic/Arbi	11
			Tamil	4
			Assamese	3
			Sindhi	3
			Odia	2
			Telugu	2
			Kannada	1
			Nepali	1
			Gondi	1
			Tulu	1
			Others	18
		Kannada	935	
			English	168
			Sanskrit	9
			Marathi	6
			Telugu	4
			Malayalam	2
			Punjabi	2
			Tamil	2
			Urdu	2
			Gujarati	1
			Others	8
		Kashmiri	734	
			English	351
			Urdu	14
			Assamese	5
			Punjabi	4
			Marathi	1
			Arabic/Arbi	1
			Kharia	1
			Others	3
		Konkani	42	
			Marathi	1
			Others	1
		Maithili	6,640	
			English	661

				Bengali	17
				Sanskrit	16
				Marathi	2
				Punjabi	2
				Telugu	2
				Nepali	1
				Urdu	1
				Others	2
		Malayalam	10,440		
				English	528
				Tamil	24
				Punjabi	6
				Marathi	5
				Kannada	4
				Telugu	3
				Bengali	2
				Gujarati	2
				Urdu	2
				Maithili	1
				Others	1
		Manipuri	76		
				English	12
				Nepali	1
				Urdu	1
				Others	2
		Marathi	10,270		
				English	1,399
				Gujarati	226
				Punjabi	52
				Urdu	52
				Sanskrit	40
				Bengali	37
				Kannada	17
				Telugu	14
				Sindhi	9
				Arabic/Arbi	7
				Nepali	5
				Tamil	5
				Malayalam	4
				Konkani	2
				Assamese	1

				Manipuri	1
				Kurukh/Oraon	1
				Others	7
		Nepali	10,439		
				English	611
				Urdu	153
				Bengali	44
				Punjabi	23
				Sanskrit	10
				Assamese	9
				Marathi	5
				Kurukh/Oraon	2
				Gujarati	1
				Kannada	1
				Manipuri	1
				Sindhi	1
				Arabic/Arbi	1
				Tibetan	1
				Tulu	1
				Others	10
		Odia	1,593		
				English	152
				Bengali	28
				Sanskrit	6
				Urdu	6
				Punjabi	3
				Telugu	2
				Ho	2
				Tamil	1
				Others	5
		Punjabi	1,85,547		
				English	31,673
				Urdu	384
				Bengali	172
				Sanskrit	117
				Sindhi	108
				Marathi	72
				Gujarati	64
				Dogri	40
				Nepali	33
				Assamese	24

			Lahnda	11
			Tamil	10
			Arabic/Arbi	8
			Malayalam	6
			Telugu	5
			Khandeshi	5
			Kannada	3
			Kashmiri	2
			Maithili	2
			Odia	2
			Kurukh/Oraon	2
			Adi	1
			Gondi	1
			Munda	1
			Others	46
		Sanskrit	5,04,204	
			English	1,80,934
			Urdu	810
			Punjabi	109
			Bengali	82
			Marathi	47
			Gujarati	42
			Arabic/Arbi	23
			Nepali	18
			Kannada	17
			Maithili	14
			Odia	4
			Telugu	4
			Assamese	3
			Tamil	3
			Munda	3
			Kashmiri	1
			Konkani	1
			Sindhi	1
			Bhili/Bhilodi	1
			Kurukh/Oraon	1
			Lahauli	1
			Others	232
		Santali	234	
			English	11
			Bengali	1

				Gujarati	1
				Punjabi	1
				Kurukh/Oraon	1
		Sindhi	19,954		
				English	2,516
				Punjabi	116
				Bengali	26
				Urdu	20
				Gujarati	10
				Marathi	3
				Arabic/Arbi	1
				Khandeshi	1
				Others	3
		Tamil	1,610		
				English	381
				Malayalam	18
				Telugu	18
				Kannada	17
				Marathi	13
				Bengali	10
				Punjabi	4
				Sanskrit	3
				Urdu	3
				Gujarati	2
				Nepali	1
				Odia	1
				Adi	1
				Arabic/Arbi	1
				Khasi	1
				Others	3
		Telugu	1,130		
				English	230
				Bengali	9
				Tamil	9
				Marathi	8
				Punjabi	7
				Urdu	5
				Malayalam	4
				Kannada	3
				Sanskrit	2
				Assamese	1

				Gujarati	1
				Maithili	1
				Odia	1
				Others	3
		Urdu	35,91,663		
				English	1,84,427
				Arabic/Arbi	81,141
				Sanskrit	1,187
				Bengali	342
				Gujarati	339
				Punjabi	236
				Marathi	147
				Nepali	57
				Telugu	14
				Assamese	13
				Malayalam	13
				Tulu	11
				Kashmiri	10
				Sindhi	5
				Tamil	5
				Odia	4
				Dogri	3
				Bhili/Bhilodi	3
				Kannada	2
				Maithili	2
				Gondi	2
				Pochury	2
				Rabha	2
				Santali	1
				Adi	1
				Khandeshi	1
				Mundari	1
				Others	946
		Adi	23		
				English	1
				Others	1
		Afghani/Kabuli/Pashto	2		
		Anal	4		
		Angami	4		
				English	1

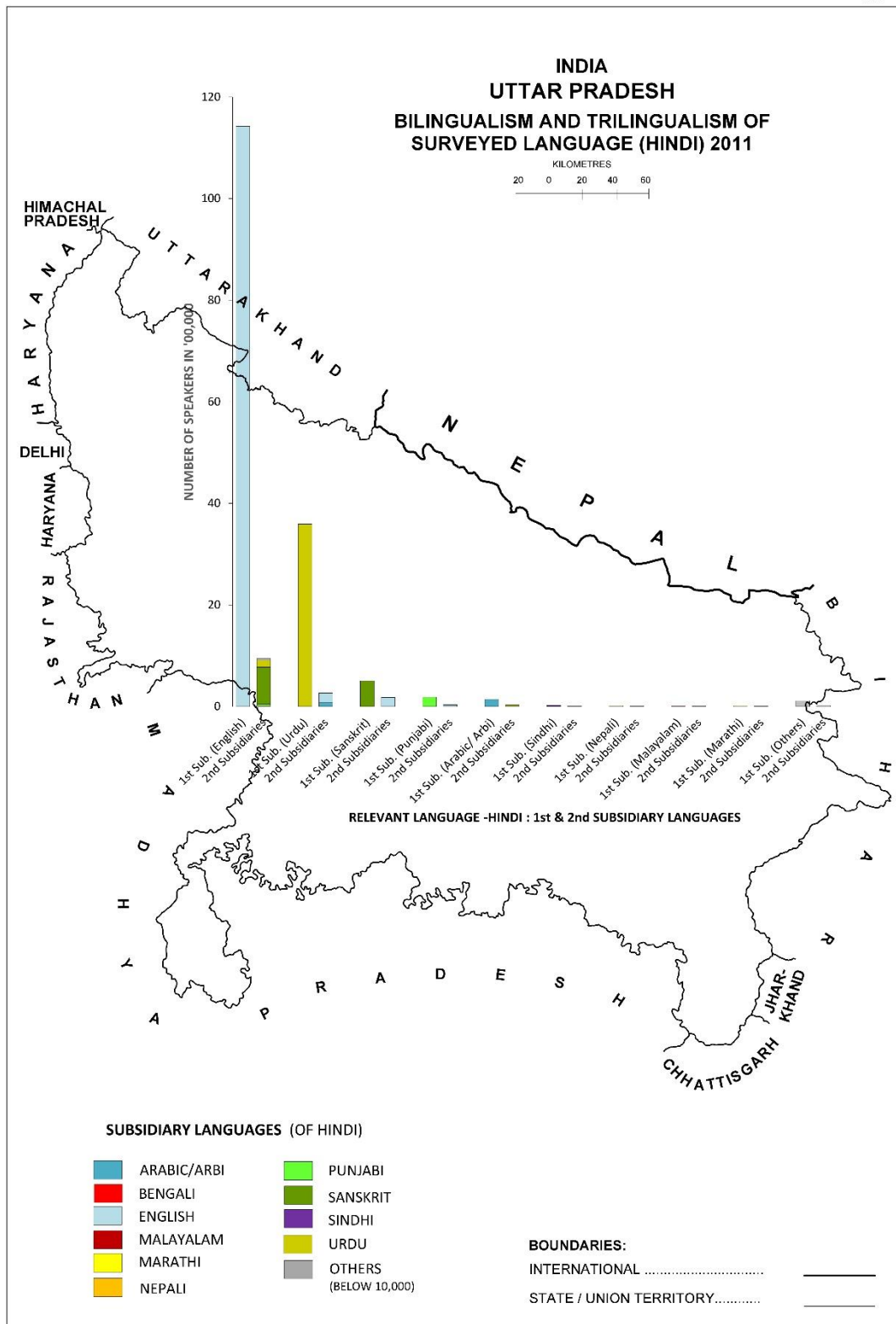
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		Arabic/Arbi	1,39,529		
				Urdu	23,915
				English	3,786
				Gujarati	135
				Sanskrit	45
				Bengali	12
				Marathi	11
				Malayalam	4
				Punjabi	4
				Assamese	2
				Nepali	1
				Telugu	1
				Tulu	1
				Others	247
		Balti	1		
		Bhili/Bhilodi	353		
				Sanskrit	4
				English	4
				Bengali	1
				Marathi	1
				Gondi	1
		Bhotia	14		
				English	1
				Others	1
		Bhumij	4		
				Urdu	1
		Bishnupuriya	3		
		Coorgi/Kodagu	41		
		Dimasa	6		
		English	1,14,24,741		
				Sanskrit	7,22,702
				Urdu	1,42,705
				Punjabi	38,667
				Bengali	10,684
				Arabic/Arbi	6,397
				Marathi	3,712
				Gujarati	2,536
				Sindhi	2,168
				Malayalam	1,196
				Maithili	1,085

			Nepali	995
			Tamil	853
			Telugu	569
			Kashmiri	509
			Kannada	469
			Assamese	453
			Odia	367
			Dogri	201
			Santali	61
			Lahnda	53
			Kurukh/Oraon	46
			Manipuri	29
			Gondi	29
			Tulu	29
			Khandeshi	28
			Bhili/Bhilodi	27
			Munda	18
			Konkani	10
			Khasi	9
			Mundari	8
			Kharia	6
			Tibetan	5
			Bhotia	4
			Ho	4
			Nissi/Dafla	4
			Adi	3
			Khond/Kondh	3
			Lahauli	3
			Savara	3
			Bodo	2
			Tangkhul	2
			Tripuri	2
			Angami	1
			Bhumij	1
			Dimasa	1
			Garo	1
			Jatapu	1
			Khezha	1
			Kuki	1
			Ladakhi	1
			Lepcha	1

				Lushai/Mizo	1
				Mogh	1
				Tamang	1
				Vaiphei	1
				Others	7,479
		Gadaba	1		
		Garo	2		
		Gondi	1,311		
				Konkani	4
				English	3
				Marathi	1
		Halabi	1		
		Halam	1		
				English	1
		Ho	21		
		Kabui	1		
		Khandeshi	171		
				English	22
				Punjabi	3
				Bengali	1
		Kharia	13		
				English	1
		Khasi	2		
				English	1
		Khezha	3		
		Khond/Kondh	1		
				English	1
		Kinnauri	4		
				English	1
		Kisan	1		
		Korwa	2		
		Kuki	2		
		Kurukh/Oraon	465		
				English	29
				Punjabi	4
				Urdu	2
				Bengali	1
				Sanskrit	1
				Others	1
		Ladakhi	2		
		Lahauli	9		

				English	4
		Lahnda	220		
				English	33
				Punjabi	12
				Sindhi	2
				Sanskrit	1
		Lakher	7		
				Gujarati	1
		Lepcha	4		
		Lushai/Mizo	6		
				English	1
		Maring	1		
		Munda	159		
				English	8
				Sanskrit	4
		Mundari	60		
				English	7
				Malayalam	1
		Nissi/Dafla	83		
				Sanskrit	3
				English	1
		Parji	1		
		Pochury	1		
		Rabha	1		
		Savara	54		
				English	8
		Shina	2		
		Tangkhul	9		
				Arabic/Arbi	2
		Thado	1		
		Tibetan	3		
				English	1
		Tripuri	7		
				English	1
		Tulu	773		
				English	22
				Urdu	7
				Arabic/Arbi	2
				Sanskrit	1
		Vaiphei	6		
				Sanskrit	1

		Others	19,862		
				English	2,174
				Sanskrit	309
				Urdu	221
				Arabic/Arbi	81
				Bengali	67
				Punjabi	31
				Kannada	15
				Telugu	15
				Marathi	14
				Gujarati	13
				Sindhi	12
				Odia	9
				Nepali	7
				Nissi/Dafla	7
				Tamil	5
				Maithili	3
				Assamese	2
				Tripuri	2
				Kashmiri	1
				Gondi	1



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1.9. Family-Wise Distribution of Surveyed Languages and Mother Tongues

Total 12 languages were surveyed under Linguistic Survey of India Project. All these 12 languages belong to the Indo-Aryan family of languages. The table presented below contains family wise distribution of surveyed languages.

Family-Wise Distribution of Surveyed Languages of the LSI Uttar Pradesh Volume-2011									
Languages	Total			Rural			Urban		
	Person	Male	Female	Person	Male	Female	Person	Male	Female
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
UTTAR PRADESH									
INDO ARYAN LANGUAGE FAMILY									
HINDI (Language)									
UTTAR PRADESH	187,979,055	98,332,835	89,646,220	149,936,334	78,214,653	71,721,681	38,042,721	20,118,182	17,924,539
Saharanpur	2,800,893	1,482,378	1,318,515	2,089,995	1,107,238	982,757	710,898	375,140	335,758
Muzaffarnagar	3,605,593	1,912,510	1,693,083	2,665,383	1,415,271	1,250,112	940,210	497,239	442,971
Bijnor	2,810,866	1,469,575	1,341,291	2,336,281	1,221,067	1,115,214	474,585	248,508	226,077
Moradabad	3,935,830	2,067,035	1,868,795	2,814,481	1,479,772	1,334,709	1,121,349	587,263	534,086
Rampur	1,728,157	908,205	819,952	1,430,161	752,027	678,134	297,996	156,178	141,818
Jyotiba Phule Nagar	1,473,961	773,426	700,535	1,253,466	657,864	595,602	220,495	115,562	104,933
Meerut	2,980,601	1,583,065	1,397,536	1,539,732	819,266	720,466	1,440,869	763,799	677,070
Baghpat	1,268,941	682,138	586,803	1,004,024	541,151	462,873	264,917	140,987	123,930
Ghaziabad	4,258,481	2,266,854	1,991,627	1,267,667	676,518	591,149	2,990,814	1,590,336	1,400,478
Gautam Buddha Nagar	1,560,401	843,911	716,490	665,055	355,056	309,999	895,346	488,855	406,491
Bulandshahr	3,264,816	1,723,909	1,540,907	2,545,475	1,345,844	1,199,631	719,341	378,065	341,276
Aligarh	3,472,840	1,846,041	1,626,799	2,438,575	1,299,547	1,139,028	1,034,265	546,494	487,771
Mahamaya Nagar	1,544,698	825,774	718,924	1,228,242	657,917	570,325	316,456	167,857	148,599
Mathura	2,506,265	1,345,483	1,160,782	1,780,513	956,622	823,891	725,752	388,861	336,891
Agra	4,363,401	2,335,280	2,028,121	2,392,629	1,284,161	1,108,468	1,970,772	1,051,119	919,653
Firozabad	2,431,236	1,296,952	1,134,284	1,659,279	888,902	770,377	771,957	408,050	363,907
Mainpuri	1,861,646	989,888	871,758	1,577,920	841,324	736,596	283,726	148,564	135,162
Budaun	3,360,846	1,800,947	1,559,899	2,913,754	1,566,180	1,347,574	447,092	234,767	212,325
Bareilly	4,037,489	2,142,780	1,894,709	2,716,947	1,445,583	1,271,364	1,320,542	697,197	623,345

Pilibhit	1,709,784	904,534	805,250	1,418,170	750,397	667,773	291,614	154,137	137,477
Shahjahanpur	2,744,682	1,469,245	1,275,437	2,291,205	1,230,110	1,061,095	453,477	239,135	214,342
Kheri	3,812,137	2,013,126	1,799,011	3,400,607	1,796,257	1,604,350	411,530	216,869	194,661
Sitapur	4,218,825	2,237,351	1,981,474	3,816,292	2,026,495	1,789,797	402,533	210,856	191,677
Hardoi	3,988,458	2,136,608	1,851,850	3,520,254	1,889,891	1,630,363	468,204	246,717	221,487
Unnao	3,037,579	1,593,515	1,444,064	2,541,388	1,333,580	1,207,808	496,191	259,935	236,256
Lucknow	4,185,409	2,184,121	2,001,288	1,506,626	790,636	715,990	2,678,783	1,393,485	1,285,298
Rae Bareli	3,347,944	1,723,177	1,624,767	3,071,569	1,579,244	1,492,325	276,375	143,933	132,442
Farrukhabad	1,792,467	957,473	834,994	1,424,971	762,716	662,255	367,496	194,757	172,739
Kannauj	1,608,280	856,669	751,611	1,354,820	723,428	631,392	253,460	133,241	120,219
Etawah	1,553,274	830,875	722,399	1,212,992	651,473	561,519	340,282	179,402	160,880
Auraiya	1,359,397	729,500	629,897	1,140,077	613,758	526,319	219,320	115,742	103,578
Kanpur Dehat	1,777,956	953,717	824,239	1,608,541	864,114	744,427	169,415	89,603	79,812
Kanpur Nagar	4,243,837	2,281,006	1,962,831	1,548,898	828,544	720,354	2,694,939	1,452,462	1,242,477
Jalaun	1,667,322	894,400	772,922	1,264,463	680,306	584,157	402,859	214,094	188,765
Jhansi	1,973,862	1,043,039	930,823	1,163,790	614,961	548,829	810,072	428,078	381,994
Lalitpur	1,211,618	635,617	576,001	1,043,587	547,859	495,728	168,031	87,758	80,273
Hamirpur	1,088,296	585,140	503,156	890,700	479,387	411,313	197,596	105,753	91,843
Mahoba	868,885	462,617	406,268	687,178	366,185	320,993	181,707	96,432	85,275
Banda	1,771,711	951,208	820,503	1,506,096	809,885	696,211	265,615	141,323	124,292
Chitrakoot	990,460	527,066	463,394	894,438	476,295	418,143	96,022	50,771	45,251
Fatehpur	2,566,713	1,351,310	1,215,403	2,272,602	1,196,540	1,076,062	294,111	154,770	139,341
Pratapgarh	3,106,963	1,554,872	1,552,091	2,954,996	1,476,330	1,478,666	151,967	78,542	73,425
Kaushambi	1,580,625	828,537	752,088	1,461,414	766,151	695,263	119,211	62,386	56,825
Allahabad	5,774,715	3,036,148	2,738,567	4,433,448	2,315,317	2,118,131	1,341,267	720,831	620,436
Bara Banki	3,056,474	1,601,537	1,454,937	2,812,377	1,472,671	1,339,706	244,097	128,866	115,231
Faizabad	2,387,443	1,216,606	1,170,837	2,091,835	1,059,570	1,032,265	295,608	157,036	138,572
Ambedkar Nagar	2,201,789	1,112,849	1,088,940	2,025,987	1,022,179	1,003,808	175,802	90,670	85,132
Sultanpur	3,676,639	1,853,530	1,823,109	3,505,506	1,764,295	1,741,211	171,133	89,235	81,898
Bahraich	3,233,483	1,710,215	1,523,268	3,030,128	1,603,776	1,426,352	203,355	106,439	96,916
Shrawasti	1,103,758	586,837	516,921	1,068,676	568,440	500,236	35,082	18,397	16,685

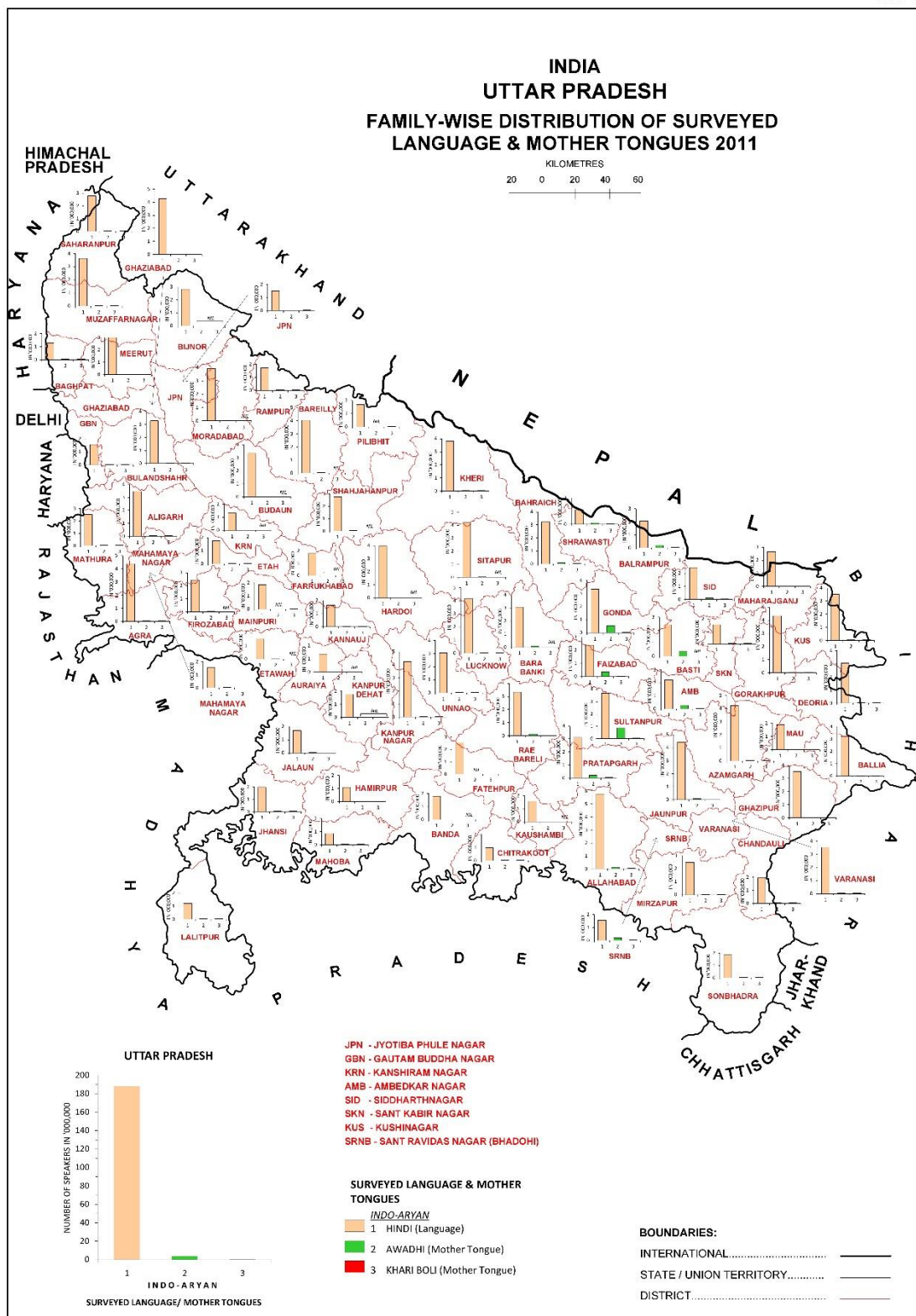
Balrampur	2,059,617	1,069,221	990,396	1,910,992	991,738	919,254	148,625	77,483	71,142
Gonda	3,338,557	1,737,411	1,601,146	3,147,641	1,637,421	1,510,220	190,916	99,990	90,926
Siddharthnagar	2,436,917	1,234,404	1,202,513	2,291,026	1,158,995	1,132,031	145,891	75,409	70,482
Basti	2,409,547	1,227,525	1,182,022	2,282,961	1,161,261	1,121,700	126,586	66,264	60,322
Sant Kabir Nagar	1,550,880	787,429	763,451	1,440,519	729,747	710,772	110,361	57,682	52,679
Mahrajganj	2,657,271	1,367,875	1,289,396	2,527,082	1,300,584	1,226,498	130,189	67,291	62,898
Gorakhpur	4,344,347	2,227,376	2,116,971	3,587,781	1,830,048	1,757,733	756,566	397,328	359,238
Kushinagar	3,546,538	1,808,816	1,737,722	3,380,739	1,722,352	1,658,387	165,799	86,464	79,335
Deoria	3,055,034	1,514,846	1,540,188	2,749,437	1,356,256	1,393,181	305,597	158,590	147,007
Azamgarh	4,233,108	2,095,802	2,137,306	3,969,177	1,959,119	2,010,058	263,931	136,683	127,248
Mau	1,906,532	962,959	943,573	1,659,629	835,216	824,413	246,903	127,743	119,160
Ballia	3,206,561	1,655,636	1,550,925	2,917,911	1,504,894	1,413,017	288,650	150,742	137,908
Jaunpur	4,404,282	2,175,026	2,229,256	4,097,450	2,016,181	2,081,269	306,832	158,845	147,987
Ghazipur	3,517,078	1,801,838	1,715,240	3,283,969	1,679,770	1,604,199	233,109	122,068	111,041
Chandauli	1,927,447	1,004,731	922,716	1,694,892	882,682	812,210	232,555	122,049	110,506
Varanasi	3,527,561	1,843,729	1,683,832	2,074,935	1,073,975	1,000,960	1,452,626	769,754	682,872
Sant Ravidas Nagar (Bhadohi)	1,542,862	788,758	754,104	1,342,959	683,488	659,471	199,903	105,270	94,633
Mirzapur	2,486,101	1,306,618	1,179,483	2,144,150	1,124,350	1,019,800	341,951	182,268	159,683
Sonbhadra	1,843,673	961,543	882,130	1,538,386	798,241	740,145	305,287	163,302	141,985
Etah	1,761,199	940,519	820,680	1,502,408	803,642	698,766	258,791	136,877	121,914
Kanshiram Nagar	1,316,197	702,177	614,020	1,109,080	592,593	516,487	207,117	109,584	97,533
AWADHI (Mother tongue)									
UTTAR PRADESH	3,801,743	1,928,456	1,873,287	3,715,556	1,883,683	1,831,873	86,187	44,773	41,414
Saharanpur	9	6	3	0	0	0	9	6	3
Muzaffarnagar	128	72	56	128	72	56	0	0	0
Moradabad	7	5	2	0	0	0	7	5	2
Rampur	20	10	10	18	8	10	2	2	0
Jyotiba Phule Nagar	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	0
Meerut	16	8	8	0	0	0	16	8	8
Baghpat	16	16	0	16	16	0	0	0	0

Ghaziabad	847	464	383	11	5	6	836	459	377
Gautam Buddha Nagar	370	215	155	0	0	0	370	215	155
Bulandshahr	22	12	10	11	7	4	11	5	6
Aligarh	59	21	38	12	1	11	47	20	27
Mahamaya Nagar	5	0	5	2	0	2	3	0	3
Mathura	122	68	54	36	18	18	86	50	36
Agra	53	17	36	0	0	0	53	17	36
Firozabad	12	9	3	12	9	3	0	0	0
Budaun	9	5	4	0	0	0	9	5	4
Bareilly	16	9	7	4	3	1	12	6	6
Shahjahanpur	2	0	2	2	0	2	0	0	0
Kheri	6,124	3,294	2,830	6,118	3,292	2,826	6	2	4
Sitapur	37,297	19,760	17,537	34,355	18,237	16,118	2,942	1,523	1,419
Hardoi	421	224	197	421	224	197	0	0	0
Unnao	3,575	1,934	1,641	3,473	1,889	1,584	102	45	57
Lucknow	10,881	5,697	5,184	9,609	5,022	4,587	1,272	675	597
Rae Bareli	137,411	70,424	66,987	135,611	69,500	66,111	1,800	924	876
Kannauj	2	0	2	0	0	0	2	0	2
Etawah	6	2	4	1	1	0	5	1	4
Auraiya	8	3	5	8	3	5	0	0	0
Kanpur Nagar	544	248	296	0	0	0	544	248	296
Jalaun	23	6	17	22	6	16	1	0	1
Jhansi	13	6	7	0	0	0	13	6	7
Lalitpur	9	6	3	1	1	0	8	5	3
Hamirpur	683	345	338	386	203	183	297	142	155
Mahoba	3	2	1	1	0	1	2	2	0
Banda	11,991	6,617	5,374	11,986	6,614	5,372	5	3	2
Chitrakoot	5,633	2,924	2,709	3,223	1,648	1,575	2,410	1,276	1,134
Pratapgarh	193,030	95,120	97,910	192,054	94,599	97,455	976	521	455
Kaushambi	1,199	617	582	1,199	617	582	0	0	0
Allahabad	110,468	56,863	53,605	107,670	55,339	52,331	2,798	1,524	1,274

Bara Banki	68,876	35,712	33,164	68,218	35,378	32,840	658	334	324
Faizabad	333,602	166,563	167,039	314,818	156,936	157,882	18,784	9,627	9,157
Ambedkar Nagar	256,822	129,299	127,523	250,630	126,124	124,506	6,192	3,175	3,017
Sultanpur	888,371	443,481	444,890	874,320	436,233	438,087	14,051	7,248	6,803
Bahraich	63,380	33,496	29,884	60,993	32,230	28,763	2,387	1,266	1,121
Shrawasti	124,837	66,439	58,398	123,149	65,553	57,596	1,688	886	802
Balrampur	185,050	95,631	89,419	182,209	94,154	88,055	2,841	1,477	1,364
Gonda	550,776	285,142	265,634	542,931	281,065	261,866	7,845	4,077	3,768
Siddharthnagar	118,109	59,272	58,837	116,462	58,397	58,065	1,647	875	772
Basti	352,135	179,513	172,622	346,301	176,452	169,849	5,834	3,061	2,773
Sant Kabir Nagar	5,266	2,713	2,553	5,266	2,713	2,553	0	0	0
Mahrajganj	1,871	936	935	1,871	936	935	0	0	0
Gorakhpur	37	18	19	18	7	11	19	11	8
Kushinagar	14	6	8	10	4	6	4	2	2
Deoria	72	66	6	7	2	5	65	64	1
Azamgarh	38,206	18,591	19,615	37,701	18,330	19,371	505	261	244
Mau	9	5	4	0	0	0	9	5	4
Ballia	7	5	2	7	5	2	0	0	0
Jaunpur	77,640	38,065	39,575	77,638	38,064	39,574	2	1	1
Ghazipur	61	25	36	58	24	34	3	1	2
Chandauli	636	332	304	630	328	302	6	4	2
Varanasi	564	295	269	152	74	78	412	221	191
Sant Ravidas Nagar (Bhadohi)	205,357	103,076	102,281	197,054	98,748	98,306	8,303	4,328	3,975
Mirzapur	4,349	2,330	2,019	4,345	2,326	2,019	4	4	0
Sonbhadra	4,656	2,413	2,243	4,373	2,264	2,109	283	149	134
Etah	4	2	2	4	2	2	0	0	0
Kanshiram Nagar	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	0
KHARI BOLI (Mother tongue)									
UTTAR PRADESH	16,355	8,689	7,666	13,214	7,018	6,196	3,141	1,671	1,470
Saharanpur	7	4	3	7	4	3	0	0	0

Muzaffarnagar	509	276	233	509	276	233	0	0	0
Rampur	10	6	4	7	5	2	3	1	2
Jyotiba Phule Nagar	24	13	11	24	13	11	0	0	0
Meerut	44	27	17	44	27	17	0	0	0
Baghpat	7,573	4,086	3,487	7,519	4,057	3,462	54	29	25
Ghaziabad	82	40	42	0	0	0	82	40	42
Gautam Buddha Nagar	43	22	21	19	11	8	24	11	13
Bulandshahr	625	339	286	625	339	286	0	0	0
Aligarh	69	36	33	39	18	21	30	18	12
Mahamaya Nagar	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	0
Mathura	170	36	134	140	15	125	30	21	9
Agra	473	252	221	465	248	217	8	4	4
Mainpuri	406	230	176	406	230	176	0	0	0
Pilibhit	142	71	71	142	71	71	0	0	0
Kheri	423	234	189	423	234	189	0	0	0
Unnao	69	29	40	69	29	40	0	0	0
Lucknow	67	33	34	22	10	12	45	23	22
Rae Bareli	33	17	16	33	17	16	0	0	0
Kannauj	2	0	2	2	0	2	0	0	0
Kanpur Nagar	3	2	1	0	0	0	3	2	1
Jalaun	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	0
Jhansi	121	65	56	11	4	7	110	61	49
Lalitpur	107	59	48	98	54	44	9	5	4
Hamirpur	138	86	52	105	65	40	33	21	12
Mahoba	4	2	2	3	2	1	1	0	1
Chitrakoot	26	12	14	0	0	0	26	12	14
Fatehpur	160	87	73	160	87	73	0	0	0
Pratapgarh	14	6	8	14	6	8	0	0	0
Allahabad	59	33	26	54	28	26	5	5	0
Faizabad	2	1	1	2	1	1	0	0	0
Ambedkar Nagar	26	12	14	25	12	13	1	0	1

Sultanpur	79	50	29	79	50	29	0	0	0
Bahraich	4	2	2	2	1	1	2	1	1
Shrawasti	10	4	6	10	4	6	0	0	0
Balrampur	2	0	2	2	0	2	0	0	0
Gonda	90	46	44	3	2	1	87	44	43
Siddharthnagar	18	12	6	18	12	6	0	0	0
Sant Kabir Nagar	36	25	11	36	25	11	0	0	0
Mahrajganj	120	64	56	34	16	18	86	48	38
Gorakhpur	526	277	249	45	28	17	481	249	232
Kushinagar	11	7	4	11	7	4	0	0	0
Deoria	149	81	68	12	11	1	137	70	67
Azamgarh	740	349	391	728	340	388	12	9	3
Mau	93	55	38	89	54	35	4	1	3
Ballia	1,018	532	486	45	22	23	973	510	463
Ghazipur	56	33	23	1	1	0	55	32	23
Chandauli	7	3	4	7	3	4	0	0	0
Varanasi	703	377	326	212	115	97	491	262	229
Sant Ravidas Nagar (Bhadohi)	5	1	4	5	1	4	0	0	0
Mirzapur	589	317	272	302	162	140	287	155	132
Sonbhadra	664	337	327	603	300	303	61	37	24
Etah	2	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	1



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1.10. Scheduled Tribes of Uttar Pradesh

According to Census 2011, Scheduled Tribe (ST) population of Uttar Pradesh is 11,34,273. The percentage is 0.6% of total tribal population in India. This State has five Scheduled Tribes and all of them have been appeared in Census 2011.

The tribal population of the state is predominantly rural with 88.8% per cent of them residing in villages. The District wise distribution of ST population shows that Kheri district has the highest proportion of STs (1.2 per cent), followed by Balrampur (1.1 per cent), Shrawasti & Bahraich (each 0.4 per cent) districts. In nine (9) districts, the proportion is 0.1% of tribal population whereas remaining fifty-seven (57) districts have negligible proportion of ST population.

Distribution of population of relevant languages named after scheduled tribes of Uttar Pradesh 2011 is presented below,

Distribution of Population of Relevant Languages Named After Scheduled Tribes of Uttar Pradesh – 2011				
Name of Scheduled Tribes	Language	Person	Male	Female
1	2	3	4	5
UTTAR PRADESH				
All Scheduled Tribes	Total Speakers	1,134,273	581,083	553,190
Bhotia	Total Speakers	5,196	2,764	2,432
	Bengali	13	7	6
	Gujarati	49	22	27
	Hindi	4,922	2,622	2,300
	Marathi	5	4	1
	Nepali	9	4	5
	Odia	2	1	1
	Punjabi	6	4	2
	Urdu	10	3	7
	Ao	1	0	1
	Bhotia	127	67	60
	Kurukh/Oraon	15	8	7
	Tibetan	7	6	1
	Others	30	16	14
Buksa	Total Speakers	4,710	2,472	2,238
	Assamese	4	2	2
	Bengali	7	5	2
	Hindi	4,664	2,453	2,211
	Kannada	1	1	0
	Odia	3	3	0

	Punjabi	2	1	1
	Telugu	1	1	0
	Urdu	6	2	4
	Ao	1	1	0
	Bhotia	14	1	13
	Kurukh/Oraon	3	1	2
	Others	4	1	3
Jaunsari	Total Speakers	3,720	1,939	1,781
	Hindi	3,717	1,937	1,780
	Marathi	1	1	0
	Nepali	1	1	0
	Bhotia	1	0	1
Raji	Total Speakers	1,295	698	597
	Bengali	2	1	1
	Hindi	1,270	688	582
	Malayalam	1	0	1
	Marathi	5	2	3
	Nepali	1	0	1
	Punjabi	9	3	6
	Urdu	3	3	0
	Khasi	1	0	1
	Others	3	1	2
Tharu	Total Speakers	105,291	53,687	51,604
	Assamese	3	2	1
	Hindi	99,994	51,059	48,935
	Kannada	1	1	0
	Maithili	4,409	2,200	2,209
	Malayalam	4	2	2
	Manipuri	1	1	0
	Marathi	99	47	52
	Nepali	496	227	269
	Odia	6	3	3
	Punjabi	19	6	13
	Urdu	48	24	24
	Bhotia	4	2	2
	Munda	14	6	8
	Mundari	6	3	3
	Sema	1	1	0
	Thado	184	102	82
	Others	2	1	1

Gond, Dhuria, Nayak, Ojha, Pathari, Raj Gond (in the districts of Mehrajganj, Sidharth Nagar, Basti, Gorakhpur, Deoria, Mau, Azamgarh, Jonpur, Balia, Gazipur, Varanasi, Mirzapur and Sonbhadra)	Total Speakers	569,035	289,499	279,536
	Assamese	2	0	2
	Bengali	146	74	72
	Hindi	563,751	286,779	276,972
	Kannada	1	1	0
	Maithili	192	97	95
	Marathi	9	4	5
	Nepali	1	0	1
	Odia	53	29	24
	Punjabi	1	0	1
	Tamil	9	3	6
	Urdu	356	172	184
	Gondi	4,473	2,320	2,153
	Kurukh/Oraon	39	18	21
	Others	2	2	0
Kharwar, Khairwar (in the districts of Deoria, Balia, Ghazipur, Varanasi and Sonbhadra)	Total Speakers	160,676	82,623	78,053
	Bengali	23	16	7
	Hindi	160,425	82,491	77,934
	Maithili	79	34	45
	Marathi	1	0	1
	Punjabi	5	3	2
	Santali	46	24	22
	Urdu	60	35	25
	English	2	1	1
	Gondi	34	18	16
	Mundari	1	1	0
Saharya (in the district of Lalitpur)	Total Speakers	70,634	36,307	34,327
	Bengali	16	7	9
	Hindi	70,610	36,295	34,315
	Urdu	8	5	3
Parahiya (in the district of Sonbhadra)	Total Speakers	901	456	445

	Hindi	901	456	445
Baiga (in the district of Sonbhadra)	Total Speakers	30,006	15,572	14,434
	Bengali	62	28	34
	Hindi	29,726	15,430	14,296
	Punjabi	1	1	0
	Gondi	216	112	104
	Others	1	1	0
Pankha, Panika (in the districts of Sonbhadra and Mirzapur)	Total Speakers	24,862	12,851	12,011
	Bengali	7	3	4
	Hindi	24,711	12,775	11,936
	Tamil	1	1	0
	Urdu	1	1	0
	English	3	2	1
	Gondi	95	46	49
	Others	44	23	21
Agariya (in the district of Sonbhadra)	Total Speakers	17,376	8,939	8,437
	Bengali	10	6	4
	Hindi	17,270	8,883	8,387
	Urdu	3	1	2
	Gondi	78	43	35
	Ho	15	6	9
Patari (in the district of Sonbhadra)	Total Speakers	132	63	69
	Hindi	132	63	69
Chero (in the districts of Sonbhadra and Varanasi)	Total Speakers	42,227	21,807	20,420
	Bengali	2	1	1
	Hindi	42,223	21,805	20,418
	Gondi	2	1	1
Bhuiya, Bhuinya (in the district of Sonbhadra)	Total Speakers	15,599	7,940	7,659
	Bengali	7	4	3
	Hindi	15,590	7,935	7,655
	Urdu	2	1	1
Generic Tribes etc.	Total Speakers	82,613	43,466	39,147
	Assamese	48	36	12
	Bengali	150	77	73
	Bodo	26	19	7
	Dogri	2	2	0

	Gujarati	81	42	39
	Hindi	77,282	40,578	36,704
	Kannada	4	3	1
	Maithili	188	108	80
	Malayalam	23	12	11
	Manipuri	9	8	1
	Marathi	40	26	14
	Nepali	34	25	9
	Odia	161	84	77
	Punjabi	56	33	23
	Sanskrit	15	10	5
	Santali	55	31	24
	Sindhi	7	4	3
	Tamil	17	12	5
	Telugu	21	16	5
	Urdu	3,802	1,987	1,815
	Adi	28	13	15
	Anal	3	3	0
	Ao	7	7	0
	Arabic/Arbi	8	5	3
	Bhotia	1	1	0
	Chang	1	1	0
	Dimasa	1	0	1
	English	13	7	6
	Gadaba	1	1	0
	Kharia	15	6	9
	Khasi	3	3	0
	Konda	16	8	8
	Kuki	20	17	3
	Kurukh/Oraon	238	120	118
	Ladakhi	1	1	0
	Lotha	2	2	0
	Lushai/Mizo	61	51	10
	Mao	4	4	0
	Monpa	1	1	0
	Munda	10	7	3
	Mundari	64	33	31
	Nocte	1	1	0
	Paite	2	2	0
	Phom	2	2	0
	Tangkhul	1	1	0
	Thado	4	4	0

	Tripuri	4	4	0
	Vaiphei	1	1	0
	Wancho	2	2	0
	Others	77	45	32

1.11. The Approach of the Present Volume

The present volume on Linguistic Survey of India - Uttar Pradesh covers 12 Languages/ Mother tongues. This volume is to be read as a supplement to Grierson's study of Hindi and its dialects in *Linguistic Survey of India*. In contrast to Grierson's brief grammatical sketch of Hindi and scanty reference to the dialects, the present study provides a linguistic description of Standard Hindi and presents individual studies of altogether ten more dialects of Hindi, namely, Awadhi, Khariboli, Dehati, Pratapgarhi, Rathori, Urtia, Mainpuri, Hamirpuri, Malyani and Malham. One dialect of Punjabi, namely Gurmukhi, has also been presented here. When compared to those of Grierson, the presentation of survey results in the present volume which is based on the descriptive analysis of data collected by means of a common questionnaire devised for the Linguistic Survey of India project.

For the present volume of LSI - Uttar Pradesh, linguistic data for all the surveyed languages or mother tongues have been collected from the various districts of Uttar Pradesh by the in-house linguist of Language Division in the year 2021-22.

All the languages were surveyed under 12th five-year plan Mother Tongue Survey of India (MTSI) Project under the Ministry of Home affairs of the Government of India. At that time linguistic data of all the surveyed languages or mother tongues have been collected by officials of Directorate of Census Operation of Uttar Pradesh, Office of the Registrar General in audio-video mode through elicitation of a devised questionnaire in the year 2014 – 15 from the various district of Uttar Pradesh by four/ eight sets of rural/ urban informants of below/ above 50 years of age of male and female.

All the collected data for MTSI Project had been transcribed and analysed by linguistic Resource Persons from various University and educational institutions all over the India and then the analysed reports had been consolidated by the eminent professors of different University.

Based on these analysed reports of four/ eight samples and one consolidated report and the collected information in the field survey by the in-house linguist of Language Division during 2021 – 22 linguistic description of all the surveyed languages/ mother tongues is presented in the present volume of LSI – Uttar Pradesh.

At the end of the grammatical description of all the languages of the volume, a comparative presentation of 500 lexical items has been presented for each of the languages.

The overall findings of Linguistic Survey of India Uttar Pradesh scheme in this provisional formulation by some linguists of the Language Division are now being published by way of a modest attempt to give a glimpse of the linguistic scenario prevailing in Uttar Pradesh state.

INDO-ARYAN FAMILY

1. INTRODUCTION

Hindi is one of the most important modern Indian languages. It originated from Sanskrit through different intermediate stages of Prakrit. Hindi is one of the official languages recognized by the Constitution of India. The Constitution of India designates the official language of the Government of India as Hindi written in the Devanagari script, along with English. Article 351 of the Indian constitution states “It shall be the duty of the Union to promote the spread of the Hindi language, to develop it so that it may serve as a medium of expression for all the elements of the composite culture of India and to secure its enrichment by assimilating without interfering with its genius, the forms, style and expressions used in Hindustani and in the other languages of India specified in the Eighth Schedule, and by drawing, wherever necessary or desirable, for its vocabulary, primarily on Sanskrit and secondarily on other languages.”

Besides being the state language of the states like Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Himachal Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh, Haryana, Chhattisgarh, Jharkhand, Uttarakhand, Rajasthan and Delhi, it has become the Lingua Franca of some of the neighboring states. Hence, Hindi is accorded the status of official language in the following Union Territories: Andaman & Nicobar Islands, Chandigarh, Dadra & Nagar Haveli, and Daman & Diu. The National-language status for Hindi is a long-debated theme. An Indian court clarified that Hindi is not the national language of India because the constitution does not mention it as such. Gujarat High Court has observed that though majority of people in India have accepted Hindi as a national language, there was nothing on record to suggest that any provision has been made or order issued declaring Hindi as a national language of the country.

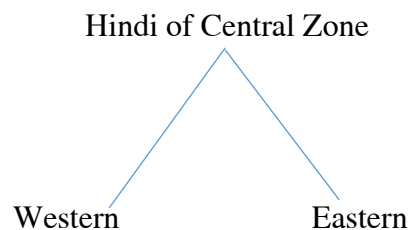
1.1 Evolution of Hindi

Hindi is used in the Northern part of India by the highest number of Indians. As one of the most prominent members of **Indo-Aryan Family of Languages** Hindi is related to all New Indo-Aryan Languages (NIA). It is a known fact that Modern Hindi has been developed from Khariboli, which is a direct descendant of Sauraseni Apabhramsa. Apart from the various Apabhramsas, Khariboli has many other influences like Persian (Iranian Branch of Indo-European family) and Arabic (Semitic family). It is said that the word ‘Hindi’ was used by the Persians to call the people and the languages of the Eastern part of the river Sindhu. Later the name Hindustani also came into use with the name Hindustan which is used popularly to denote India. There are many confusions regarding the names ‘Hindi’, ‘Hindustani’ and ‘Urdu’. The linguist like Yamuna Kachru has elaborated this view with proper description. The names Hindi, Hindustani, and Urdu are confusing. It is generally accepted that all these varieties are based upon the language spoken around Delhi and Meerut and began developing around the 12th and 13th century as a result of contact between the Arabs, Afghans, Persians, and Turks

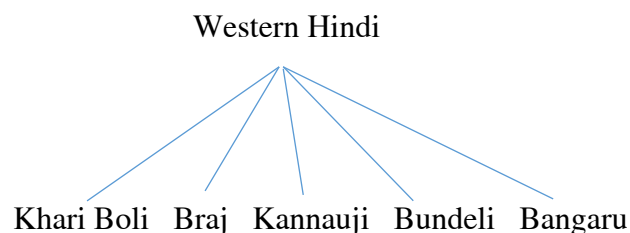
and the local population. The language that existed in reality as a mutual interaction between the foreigners and the native population, was variously labelled *rexta* (Mixed), Urdu (Camp) and Hindi or Hindawi or Hindustani (Indian). Under court patronage and various other social pressures two distinct styles, with two different scripts developed in the course of the succeeding centuries. Urdu is written in Perso-Arabic script and look to the Persian and Arabic for literary inspiration and specialized expressions.

The one written in Devanagari script and adopting literary conventions and vocabulary mainly from Sanskritic sources came to be known as Hindi. During the period of National Movement, Mahatma Gandhi and the Indian National Congress attempted to encourage a neutral variety called Hindustani to bring the two speech communities together. Although the common spoken variety of both Hindi and Urdu is close to Hindustani. The spoken forms of Hindi and Urdu are devoid of heavy borrowings from either Sanskrit or Perso-Arabic expressions. To recognize the regional variations the Hindi of the Central zone has been broadly divided into two groups:

1. Western Hindi
2. Eastern Hindi



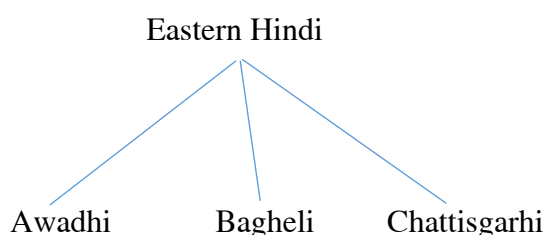
The dialects like Bangaru, Braj, Kannauji and Bundell belong to the Western group. Khariboli is spoken in the area of Raoipur, Moradabad, Bijnaur, Meerut, Mujaffarnagar, Sahranpur and Dehradun, Ambala, and Eastern part of Patiala. Modern Hindi has been developed mainly from Khariboli dialect of Western Hindi. The area where Bangru is spoken is the South-Eastern part of Punjab. In Mathura, Agra, Aligarh and Dholpur Braj Bhasa is used by the people, Kannauji is spoken in and around Farukhabad touching Itawa and Kanpur. Bundeli is used mainly in Bundelkhand area. Also, it is found to be used In Jhansi, Gwalior, Hiopal, Sagar and its neighboring places.



Among these five dialects of Western Hindi, “Braj Bhasha” was considered as the main literary language which has a very rich literary tradition. The term Khari boli is an umbrella term for both Hindi and Urdu. The language Khariboli is also known as Khari Boli or simply Khari, Dehlavi, Kauravi, and Vernacular Hindustani. It is the prestige dialect of Hindustani, of

which Standard Hindi and Standard Urdu are standard registers and literary styles, which are the principal official languages of India and Pakistan respectively.

According to the 2001 Indian census report, 258 million people in India (25% of the population) regarded their native language to be "Hindi". Census, however, counted 422 million Hindi speakers (41% of the population) by including people who have identified their mother tongues as Awadhi, Bagheli, Bhojpuri (Bihari), Bundeli, Chhattisgarhi, Garhwali, Harauti, Haryanvi, Khortha (Khotta), Kumaoni, Lamani (Lambadi), Magadhi (Bihari), Malvi, Marwari, Mewari, Nimadi, Pahari, Rajasthani, and Sadan (Sadri), as well as numerous other languages with fewer than 2 million self-identified speakers. Note that these figures do not count 52 million Indians who considered their mother tongue to be "Urdu".



Awadhi, Bagheli and Chattisgarhi belong to the Eastern group. Among the dialects of Eastern Hindi Awadhi is spoken in and around Lucknow and also some parts of Allahabad, Kanpur and neighboring areas. As compared to other dialects Awadhi speakers are more in number. This dialect also has very rich literary tradition from which we get the master piece like 'Ramacharita -manasa' by Tulsidasji and Malik Md Jaysi's Padmavat. Bagheli is mostly used by the people of Riwa and its neighbouring areas. It is also used in some other regions of Madhya Pradesh. Chattisgarhi is spoken mainly in Raipur and Bilaspur of Madhya Pradesh and some other neighboring places. However, the modern standardized form of Hindi is primarily based on the Khariboli variation which has also been influenced by various other dialects and languages over time.

1.2. Location

The present study was mainly carried out in the villages of Allahabad district of Uttar Pradesh. Allahabad division is situated at the confluence of the Ganges and Yamuna rivers and is bordered by the districts of Pratapgarh to the east, Kaushambi to the west, Fatehpur to the south and the district of Allahabad (now known as Prayagraj) to the north. The district headquarters is located in the city of Allahabad (Prayagraj) which is also the largest city in the district.

Allahabad District is divided into blocks within tehsils. As of 2011, there are 20 blocks in eight tehsils. The Allahabad division includes the districts of Fatehpur, Kaushambi and Allahabad, with the western Allahabad District becoming part of the new Kaushambi district. The administrative divisions are Phulpur, Koraon, Meja, Sadar, Soraon, Handia, Bara and Karchana.

Allahabad is located at 25.45°N 81.84°E in the southern part of the Uttar Pradesh at an elevation of 98 meters (322 ft) and stands at the confluence of two, the Ganges and Yamuna.

The region was known in antiquity as the Vats country. To its south and southeast is the Bagelkhand region, to its east is middle Ganges valley of North India, or Purvanchal, to its southwest is the Bundelkhand region, to its north and northeast is the Awadh region and to its west along with Kaushambi it forms the part of Doab i.e. the Lower Doab region.

1.3. Socio-linguistic Information

Hindi is the official language of India and is widely spoken and understood by a large number of people in the country. Uttar Pradesh is located in the northern part of India and Hindi is the official language of the state. It is the most widely spoken language of the state with nearly 90% of the population speaking Hindi as their first language. However, the dialects and variations of Hindi spoken in Uttar Pradesh vary depending on the region and community. Keeping all these socio-linguistic factors as the background, the overall assessment of socio-linguistic implication of 'Hindi' in Uttar Pradesh state is presented in following details based on the survey conducted in Uttar Pradesh in December, 2021 under the 'LSI-UP' project.

Language use in different domains-

a) **Home** – In the home domain Hindi is used as a mother tongue. Speakers use it to communicate with their family members including kith and kin both inside and outside of their home. It is found to be used by people in nearby locality, market and thus in all public domains.

b) **Schools and Other Academic Institutions** – The state government of Uttar Pradesh has taken several steps to promote the use of Hindi in educational institutions. Government has set up schools that use Hindi as the medium of instructions and offer education in various subjects including science, mathematics and social sciences in Hindi. In all government and private schools in the state, Hindi is taught as a compulsory subject from I to XII. In many colleges and universities in Uttar Pradesh, Hindi is used as the medium of instructions for various courses. Many colleges and universities have separate question papers in Hindi for students who prefer to give the examination in that language. Many research papers, journals and books are written and published in Hindi in colleges, universities and other academic institution of Uttar Pradesh.

c) **Mass Media** – Hindi is the dominant language in the mass media of Uttar Pradesh. Several Hindi newspapers and magazines are published in Uttar Pradesh that cater a wide range of topics like politics, sports, entertainment, education etc. to the readers across the state. There are several Hindi radio and television channels in Uttar Pradesh which broadcast news, entertainment and educational programs in Hindi. Hindi cinema constitutes a major part of the mass media in Uttar Pradesh. Hindi films are regularly being produced and released in the state and they are being watched by millions of people in theaters and television.

d) **Administration** – Hindi is the official language of Uttar Pradesh and is widely used in the administration of the state. The state government of Uttar Pradesh uses Hindi in its official communications, including official letters, notices and other documents. All government websites and publications are also available in Hindi. Furthermore, many of the administrative

procedures such as filling up forms, applying for government schemes and submitting official documents are being done in Hindi.

e) **Judiciary** – Hindi is extensively used in the judiciary of Uttar Pradesh. As per the constitution of India, every state has the right to choose its own official language and in Uttar Pradesh Hindi has been chosen as the official language. The use of Hindi in judiciary of Uttar Pradesh is governed by the Uttar Pradesh Official Language Act, 1951. Therefore, all legal proceedings in the state are conducted in Hindi, unless the case involves a non-Hindi speaking party, in which case an interpreter may be appointed to facilitate communication.

f) **Script** – Hindi is written in ‘Devanagari’ script which is a beautiful and intricate writing system that has been used for centuries to write several Indian languages including Hindi. The script consists of 47 primary characters including 14 vowels and 33 consonants. Additional sounds are indicated by using diacritic marks above or under the sound. The script is read from left to right and words are separated by a vertical line called the ‘danda’.

1.4. Review of Earlier Literary Tradition

Hindi literature in Uttar Pradesh has a rich and diverse history that dates back to ancient times. The region has been a center of cultural and literary activity for centuries, and has produced some of the most renowned poets and writers of Hindi language.

The earliest form of Hindi literature in Uttar Pradesh is believed to be the works of the Bhakti movement which emerged in the region during the medieval period. This movement was marked by the rise of devotional poetry that sought to create a direct connection between God and the common people. The most notable figures associated with this movement include Kabir, Ravidas and Tulsidas. The Mughal era in Uttar Pradesh also witnessed the development of several new literary genre. This period saw the emergence of ‘ghazals’ as well as the Persian literature in this region. The most prominent literary figures of this period include Mir Taqi Mir, Mirza Ghalib, Faiz Ahmed Faiz and many more. The 19th and 20th centuries saw the emergence of several new literary movements in Uttar Pradesh. The most notable of these was the Chhayavaad movement which was marked by the use of romantic and mystical themes in poetry. The most famous poets associated with this movement include Jaishankar Prasad, Sumitranandan Pant & Mahadevi Vrema. In the post-independence period, Hindi literature in UP continued to flourish. The region produced several prominent writers including Premchand, Harivansh Rai Bachchan and Rahul Sankrityayan. Contemporary writers such as Amrita Pritam, Nirmal Verma and Krishna Sobti have also made significant contributions to Hindi literature in Uttar Pradesh.

1.5 The Present Study- Base for Analysis

The present study is a humble attempt to give the detailed phonological, morphological and syntactic features of Hindi based on the field data collected from Allahabad (Prayagraj) district of Uttar Pradesh in December, 2021 under the ‘LSI, Uttar Pradesh’ project. The names of the informant and interpreter are – Shri. Dinesh Kumar Maurya and Shri. Ashok Sen respectively.

Previously, ‘Hindi’ had been surveyed under ‘Mother Tongue Survey of India’ (MTSI) Project of the Ministry of Home Affairs, Govt. of India in 2015 from Allahab, Uttar Pradesh. Eight different samples (variables) which are categorized on the basis of informant’s place, gender and age, have been collected in audio-visual form. The names of the informants are- Smt. Satna Kumari, Smt. Roopa Devi, Shri. Dinanath Maurya, Shri. Ram Kailash Maurya, Smt. Ashoka Srivastava, Smt. Prabha Dixit, Shri. Ghyansam Prasad and Shri. Laxmikant Dixit. Those data were given to different scholars from various universities of India to write an analytical report on each of the particular variable. The details of the scholars are as follows: Parvatbhai Bhembhai Vadi, Deccan College, Pune; Raghawandra Singh Rajpoot, H.S.G. University, Sagar; Basudha Das & Shreya Das, University of Calcutta; Mahboob Zahid, University of Delhi; Humaira Khan & Syed Iram, University of Kashmir and Siddharth Chockroborty, CIIL. Finally, these analytical reports had been given to an eminent professor who had amalgamated all these sketchy reports into an exhaustive consolidation. The consolidated report of ‘Hindi’ was written by Prof. A.R. Fatihi.

Moreover, a fresh survey has also been conducted in 2021 by our inhouse linguists in order to supplement the MTSI survey results for preparing the ‘Linguistic Survey of India, Uttar Pradesh’ volume. The present report on Hindi for LSI, Uttar Pradesh volume has been prepared largely on the base of Prof. A.R. Fatihi’s consolidated report along with the findings derived from the fresh survey results.

2. PHONOLOGY

Phonology studies the sound systems of languages including the ways in which the sounds are organized and used in natural languages. It is concerned with the systematic organization of the speech sounds, known as ‘phonemes’ and involves the analysis of the phonetic and phonemic properties of the speech sounds as well the rules that govern their distribution and variation in different languages. Overall, it is a fundamental component of linguistic analysis that provides insight into the underlying structures and processes that shape a language. On the basis of the collected data the phonological structure of Hindi Language has been given below.

2.1. Phonemic Inventory

Phonemic inventory refers to the set of sounds or phonemes that are organized and used to convey meaning in a particular language. The phonemic inventory of Hindi comprises of both segmental and supra-segmental phonemes.

2.1.1. Segmental Phonemes

(A) Vowels

A vowel is a speech sound, during the articulation of which, the lung-air escapes through the mouth without any friction or obstruction. The vowels are produced with the mouth and throat relatively open and unconstructed allowing the air to flow freely. There are **22** distinct vowel sounds in Hindi comprising of **10** pure vowels and **12** diphthongs.

(i) Pure Vowels or Monophthongs

A pure vowel, also known as monophthongs, is a vowel sound that is pronounced with a consistent and unchanging tongue position throughout its duration. Hindi has **10** pure vowel sounds out of which **4** are front, **1** is central and **5** are back. Most of the vowel sounds have their nasalized counterparts.

VOWEL CHART

	Front	Central	Back
Close	i ɪ		u ʊ
Close-mid	e		o
Mid		ə	
Open-mid	ɛ		ɔ
Open			ɑ

Distribution of Vowel Sounds:

Vowel	Initial	Medial	Final
/i/	/iʃvər/ ‘God’	/nim/ ‘neem’	/and ^{hi} / ‘storm’
	/ik ^h / ‘cane’	/simə/ ‘boundary’	/əŋguʃ ^{hi} / ‘ring’
	/ind ^h ən/ ‘fuel’	/pila/ ‘yellow’	/pəɔɖi/ ‘turban’
/ɪ/	/ɪmli/ ‘tamarind’	/mirc/ ‘chili’	/pəti/ ‘husband’
	/ɪd ^h ər/ ‘here’	/kisan/ ‘farmer’	/ʃəkti/ ‘energy’
	/ɪlɑʃ/ ‘treatment’	/ʃila/ ‘district’	/gəti/ ‘speed’
/e/	/ek/ ‘one’	/tel/ ‘oil’	/məsuɾe/ ‘gum’
	/eɖi/ ‘heel’	/beɖa/ ‘son’	/pic ^h e/ ‘behind’
	/erəndʒi kə tel/ ‘castor oil’	/ʃer/ ‘lion’	/d ^{hi} ire/ ‘slowly’
/ɛ/	/ɛlmuniam/ ‘aluminum’	/vɛʃʃa/ ‘prostitute’	/c ^h ɛ/ ‘six’
	/ɛjsa/ ‘like this’	/bɛl/ ‘bull’	/vəʃɛ/ ‘cause’
	/ɛhsanmandi/ ‘indebtedness’	/pɛr/ ‘leg’	
/ə/	/əndə/ ‘egg’	/pərbət/ ‘mountain’	/grəhə/ ‘planet’
	/əcər/ ‘pickle’	/ləkɖi/ ‘wood’	/pətrə/ ‘letter’
	/əŋɡur/ ‘grape’	/bəndər/ ‘monkey’	/purtə/ ‘son’
/a/	/aɔ/ ‘fire’	/nəɖək/ ‘drama’	/kəhrə/ ‘fog’
	/ədət/ ‘habit’	/tər/ ‘wire’	/gila/ ‘wet’
	/akəʃ/ ‘sky’	/təp/ ‘heat’	/cundə/ ‘lime’
/u/	/upər/ ‘up’	/cuha/ ‘rat’	/bəlu/ ‘sand’
	/urʃə/ ‘energy’	/d ^h ul/ ‘dust’	/bic ^h u/ ‘scorpion’
	/un/ ‘wool’	/tərbuʃ/ ‘watermelon’	/kəddu/ ‘pumpkin’
/ʊ/	/ʊɖi/ ‘vomit’	/kənd/ ‘pool’	/ʃɪʃʊ/ ‘child’
	/ʊpvas/ ‘fast’	/kətiə/ ‘bitch’	/pəʃʊ/ ‘animal’
	/ʊntis/ ‘twenty-nine’	/məɾga/ ‘cock’	/məd ^h ʊ/ ‘honey’
/o/	/os/ ‘dew’	/log/ ‘people’	/do/ ‘two’
	/or/ ‘to’	/d ^h obi/ ‘washer man’	/təmkə/ ‘to you’
	/oksəndə/ ‘to winnow’	/ləɖ ^h a/ ‘pestle’	/sərsə/ ‘mustard’
/ɔ/	— — —	/cək/ ‘chalk’	/ʃɔ/ ‘barley’
	— — —	/bəl/ ‘ball’	/nə/ ‘nine’
	— — —	/kələʃ/ ‘college’	/sə/ ‘hundred’

Note: The occurrence of the vowel /ɔ/ is not as frequent as other vowel sounds in Hindi. Many scholars believe that /ɔ/ is not a distinct phoneme in Hindi and is not included in the basic set of vowels that are officially recognized as the Hindi vowel sounds. However, they claim that some regional dialects or varieties may include the /ɔ/ vowel as a distinct phoneme as the pronunciation of Hindi vowels can vary depending upon the regional varieties and accent. The basic set of vowels covers most of the common vowel sound in Hindi language, but some regional varieties may include additional vowel sounds or variations of existing vowel, such as the /ɔ/ vowel sound. As per the collected data of the present study, however, it can be said that the vowel /ɔ/ occurs less frequently as compared to other vowels of Hindi and in most of the cases it occurs in the loan as well as borrowed words of English.

Allophonic Variation of Hindi Vowel

Allophones are the contextual variants of the same phoneme which are pronounced in different ways, depending on its position in a word, its surrounding sounds and other phonological factors. These allophonic variations are often influenced by the factors such as the sounds that come before and after it and the speaker's regional accent etc.

In Hindi vowel /ɛ/ occurs as a phonologically conditioned allophone of /ə/ in proximity of sound /h/, if and only if /h/ occurs in an intervocalic position, being surrounded on both sides by two underlying orthographic schwas (/ə/). For example:

/ə/ → /ɛ/

Hindi Word	Gloss	Phonemic Transcription	Phonetic Transcription (allophonic)
शहर	'city'	/ʃəhər/	[ʃɛhɛɾ]
लहर	'wave'	/ləhər/	[ləhɛɾ]
महक	'fragrance'	/məhək/	[mɛhɛk]

(ii) Vowel Glides or Diphthongs

A diphthong may be described as a *vowel glide*, i.e. the tongue first takes the position required for the articulation of a certain vowel and then moves (or glides) towards the position required for the articulation of another vowel. A vowel Glide, if it has to be called a diphthong, will have to occupy a single syllable. As per the collected Hindi has 12 Diphthongs or Vowel glides. These are - /aɪ/, /eɪ/, /əi/, /ai/, /aʊ/, /aʊ/, /ɔɪ/, /ɔɪ/, /oi/, /ɔi/ and /ɔa/.

Distribution of Diphthongs

Diphthong	Initial		Medial		Final	
/ɪɑ/	---	---	/naɪɑl/	‘coconut’	/pɪɪɑ/	‘jaundice’
			/motɪɑbind/	‘cataract’	/cɪɪɑ/	‘bird’
/eo/	---	---	/neola/	‘mongoose’	/reo/	‘roar’
			/dʰeola/	‘type of bird’	/kəleo/	‘type of bird’
/eu/	---	---	/seuna/	‘to sow’	/ʒəneu/	‘thread ceremony’
/əi/	---	---	/tətəija/	‘wasp’	/bətʰəi/	‘carpenter’
			/təijar kərna/	‘to prepare’	/tutəi/	‘ridge gourd’
/ai/	/aina/	‘mirror’	/bais/	‘twenty-two’	/kəlai/	‘wrist’
			/səpʰaivala/	‘sweeper’	/cətai/	‘mat’
/ao/	/ao/	‘to come’ (IMP)	---	---	/pao/	‘quarter’
					/nao/	‘boat’
/aʊ/	---	---	/baʊʒi/	‘father’	---	---
			/taʊʒi/	‘father’s elder brother’		
/ɔo/	/ɔorət/	‘woman’	/sɔoda/	‘bargain’	/ʒɔo/	‘barley’
			/gɔoʃala/	‘cowshed’		
/ɔʊ/	/ɔʊkat/	‘worth’	/cɔʊda/	‘fourteen’	---	---
			/pɔʊdʰa/	‘plant’		
/oi/	---	---	/rəsoigʰər/	‘kitchen’	/koi/	‘someone’
			/rəsoidar/	‘cook’	/nəndoi/	‘husband’s sister’s husband.’
/ɔi/	---	---	---	---	/sɔi/	‘needle’
					/rɔi/	‘cotton’
/ʊa/	---	---	/ʒəalamukʰi/	‘volcano’	/bʊa/	‘father’s sister’
					/kəcʰʊa/	‘tortoise’

(B) Consonants

A consonant is a speech sound produced by obstructing or constricting the lung-air in the vocal tract, creating friction. This is the point that distinguishes consonants from the vowels which are produced without obstruction or constriction of airflow. Hindi has **35** consonants including **2** approximants.

CONSONANT CHART

		Bilabial		Labio-dental		Dental		Alveolar		Palato-alveolar		Palatal		Retroflex		Velar		Glottal	
		vl	vd	vl	vd	vl	vd	vl	vd	vl	vd	vl	vd	vl	vd	vl	vd	vl	vd
Stop	Unaspirated	p	b			t	d			c	ɟ			ʈ	ɖ	k	g		
	Aspirated	p ^h	b ^h			t ^h	d ^h			c ^h	ɟ ^h			ʈ ^h	ɖ ^h	k ^h	g ^h		
Nasal			m						n						ɳ		ŋ		
Affricate	Unaspirated																		
	Aspirated																		
Fricative				f				s	z	ʃ								h	
Trill																			
Tap or Flap	Unaspirated							r							ɽ				
	Aspirated														ɽ ^h				
Lateral								l											
Approximants					ʋ							j							

Distribution of Consonants

Consonant	Initial			Medial			Final		
/p/	/pʊrəb/	‘east’		/c ^h ɪpkəli/	‘lizard’		/pip/	‘pus’	
	/pas/	‘near’		/pəpəɽ/	‘papad’		/sāp/	‘snake’	
	/pəsina/	‘sweat’		/dipək/	‘lamp’		/tap/	‘heat’	
/p ^h /	/p ^h ul/	‘flower’		/p ^h ep ^h ɽa/	‘ling’		/sōp ^h /	‘aniseed’	
	/p ^h ika/	‘pale’		/mun̪g̪p ^h əli/	‘ground nut’		/kəp ^h /	‘phlegm’	
	/p ^h əl/	‘fruit’		/p ^h up ^h əra b ^h ai/	‘father’s sister’s son’				
/b/	/badəl/	‘cloud’		/sabun/	‘soap’		/səb/	‘all’	
	/bara/	‘twelve’		/cabi/	‘key’		/gulab/	‘rose’	
	/beɽi/	‘daughter’		/mombətti/	‘candle’		/kɪtab/	‘book’	
/b ^h /	/b ^h ap/	‘steam’		/b ^h ab ^h i/	‘brother’s wife’		/lob ^h /	‘greed’	

	/b ^h ukəmp/	‘earthquake’	/əb ^h ɪneta/	‘actor’	/ʒib ^h /	‘tongue’
	/b ^h ala/	‘spear’	/trib ^h ʊʒ/	‘triangle’	/lab ^h /	‘profit’
/t/	/tala/	‘lock’	/pəpita/	‘papaya’	/adət/	‘habit’
	/təmbu/	‘tent’	/pətla/	‘lean (man)’	/takət/	‘strength’
	/tara/	‘star’	/murti/	‘idol’	/k ^h et/	‘field’
/t ^h /	/t ^h ali/	‘plate’	/prɪt ^h ui/	‘earth’	/svəst ^h /	‘health’
	/t ^h uk/	‘saliva’	/hət ^h eli/	‘palm’	/hat ^h /	‘hand’
	/t ^h oɾa/	‘little’	/hat ^h i/	‘elephant’	/sat ^h /	‘with’
/d/	/dost/	‘friend’	/dada/	‘father’s father’	/dad/	‘ringworm’
	/dəst/	‘diarrhea’	/pudina/	‘mint leaf’	/səɾəd/	‘autumn’
	/dəva/	‘medicine’	/ədələt/	‘court’	/ərbəd/	‘tumor’
/d ^h /	/d ^h ʊā/	‘smoke’	/ənd ^h kar/	‘darkness’	/dud ^h /	‘milk’
	/d ^h an/	‘paddy’	/sid ^h a/	‘straight’	/judd ^h /	‘war’
	/d ^h obi/	‘washer man’	/bəd ^h u/	‘bride’	/baʒubənd ^h /	‘armlet’
/c/	/caku/	‘knife’	/bəcpən/	‘childhood’	/nac/	‘dance’
	/cini/	‘sugar’	/moci/	‘cobbler’	/kāc/	‘glass’
	/cori/	‘theft’	/bic mē/	‘between’	/pāc/	‘five’
/c ^h /	/c ^h əlɪni/	‘strainer’	/bəc ^h ɾa/	‘calf’	/mūc ^h /	‘moustache’
	/c ^h ət/	‘roof’	/məc ^h li/	‘fish’	/kəc ^h /	‘few’
	/c ^h ətri/	‘umbrella’	/pic ^h e/	‘behind’	/pūc ^h /	‘tail’
/ʒ/	/ʒɔɾva/	‘twin’	/biʒli/	‘lightning’	/aʒ/	‘today’
	/ʒəbɾa/	‘jaw’	/kəleʒa/	‘liver’	/raʒ/	‘kingdom’
	/ʒuta/	‘shoe’	/k ^h ʊʒli/	‘itching’	/ɪlaʒ/	‘treatment’
/ʒ ^h /	/ʒ ^h il/	‘lake’	/buʒ ^h ana/	‘to extinguish a	/bāʒ ^h /	‘infertile’
	/ʒ ^h ɪŋgɔɾ/	‘cockroach’	/səməʒ ^h ana/	fire’	/sāʒ ^h /	‘twilight’
	/ʒ ^h opti/	‘hut’	/səməʒ ^h na/	‘to explain’ ‘to understand’		
/ɭ/	/ɭokri/	‘basket’	/ɭəmaɾ/	‘tomato’	/ɭɪ/	‘brick’
	/ɭəɭu/	‘pony’	/b ^h aɭa/	‘low tide’	/peɭ/	‘stomach’
	/ɭəkɾana/	‘to collide’	/cɪɭi/	‘ant’	/ūɭ/	‘camel’
/t ^h /	/t ^h oɾi/	‘chin’	/əŋguɭ ^h a/	‘thumb’	/piɭ ^h /	‘back of body’
	/t ^h əŋɭ/	‘cold’	/məɭeɭ ^h i/	‘liquorice’		
	/t ^h əɭ ^h era/	‘coppersmith’	/kəniɭ ^h a/	‘little finger’	/ōɭ ^h /	‘lip’

					/sōtʰ/	‘dry ginger’
/d/	/dʰakɑr/	‘belch’	/əndɑ/	‘egg’	/tʰənd/	‘cold’
	/dʰakɪɑ/	‘postman’	/gəndɑ/	‘rhinoceros’	/dənd/	‘punishment’
	/dʰubnɑ/	‘to sink’	/həndʒi/	‘pot’	/ʃʰund/	‘group’
/dʰ/	/dʰal/	‘slope’	/mendʰək/	‘toad’	---	---
	/dʰəkkən/	‘lid’	/bedʰəŋɡɑ/	‘awkward’		
	/dʰol/	‘type of drum’				
/k/	/kutta/	‘dog’	/akɑʃ/	‘sky’	/nak/	‘nose’
	/kēcəɑ/	‘earthworm’	/məkɾi/	‘spider’	/dʰak/	‘postage’
	/kūvra/	‘bachelor’	/dʰēki/	‘dhenki (husk)’	/pələk/	‘eyelid’
/kʰ/	/kʰətməl/	‘bug’	/pokʰər/	‘pond’	/ākʰ/	‘eye’
	/kʰərgoʃ/	‘rabbit’	/təkʰnɑ/	‘ankle’	/pəŋkʰ/	‘wing’
	/kʰun/	‘blood’	/bukʰɑr/	‘fever’	/dəkʰ/	‘sorrow’
/g/	/gal/	‘cheek’	/karɑɡɑr/	‘prison’	/rog/	‘disease’
	/gorɑ/	‘fair (male)’	/nəɡər/	‘city’	/svərg/	‘heaven’
			/dogəna/	‘double’	/bʰaq/	‘division’
/gʰ/	/gʰoɾɑ/	‘horse’	/gʰoŋɡʰɑ/	‘snail’	/ʃəŋɡʰ/	‘thigh’
	/gʰōsla/	‘nest’	/kəŋɡʰi/	‘comb’	/bagʰ/	‘tiger’
	/gʰi/	‘ghee’	/laŋɡʰnɑ/	‘to cross’	/əmoɡʰ/	‘unfailing’
/m/	/ma/	‘mother’	/damad/	‘son-in-law’	/prem/	‘affection’
	/mas/	‘flesh’	/lomɾi/	‘fox’	/gəɾəm/	‘hot’
	/mala/	‘garland’	/cəmɾɑ/	‘skin’	/am/	‘mango’
/n/	/nila/	‘blue’	/kanun/	‘law’	/kan/	‘ear’
	/naɾɑ/	‘short(male)’	/kəndʰɑ/	‘shoulder’	/əpman/	‘insult’
	/nəja/	‘new’	/təndur/	‘oven’	/din/	‘day’
/ɳ/	---	---	/məɳi/	‘gem’	/hirəɳ/	‘deer’
			/ʃivəɳɔ/	‘microbe’	/rəɳ/	‘battle’
			/vəɳi/	‘voice/speech’	/gəɳ/	‘properties’
/ɳʱ/	---	---	/ləɳɾɑ/	‘lame (male)’	/hiɳ/	‘asafoetida’
			/əɳɡur/	‘grapes’	/ləɳ/	‘clove’
			/ʃəɳɡəl/	‘forest’	/rəɳ/	‘colour’

/f/	/fajda/	‘profit’	/gʊfa/	‘cave’	/sɪrf/	‘only’
	/fəvɑrɑ/	‘fountain’	/əfʊah/	‘rumor’	/tɑrɪf/	‘praise’
	/færʃ/	‘floor’	/səfed/	‘white’	/bærʃ/	‘ice’
/s/	/sər/	‘head’	/səsɔr/	‘father-in-law’	/os/	‘dew’
	/səpɑrɪ/	‘beetle nut’	/bəvɑsɪr/	‘piles’	/gʰas/	‘grass’
	/səntɾɑ/	‘orange’	/ɑsu/	‘tears’	/bis/	‘twenty’
/z/	/zinda/	‘alive’	/səbzi/	‘vegetable’	/ɑvɑz/	‘noise’
	/zəvər/	‘ornaments’	/vəzən/	‘weight’	/mərɪz/	‘patient’
	/zəŋʃɪr/	‘chain’	/ɑzmaɪn/	‘to test/ to try’	/roz/	‘daily’
/ʃ/	/ʃɪkɑrɪ/	‘hunter’	/ʃɪʃt/	‘child’	/rɔʃ/	‘fury’
	/ʃɔlk/	‘tax’	/vərʃɑ/	‘monsoon’	/nɪrɔʃ/	‘innocent’
	/ʃəŋkʰ/	‘conch’	/nəpuŋʃək/	‘eunuch’	/pərɔʃ/	‘male’
/h/	/hədqɪ/	‘bone’	/pəhɑr/	‘hill’	/səndeh/	‘doubt’
	/hɪckɪ/	‘hiccup’	/dɔlhən/	‘bride’	/məllɑh/	‘boatman’
	/hɑr/	‘necklace’	/cuha/	‘rat’	/subɑh/	‘morning’
/ɾ/	/ɾɑkʰ/	‘ash’	/bɑrɪʃ/	‘rain’	/pərɪvɑr/	‘family’
	/ɾɑt/	‘night’	/ʃərɪr/	‘body’	/gʰər/	‘house’
	/ɾɑni/	‘queen’	/kəmrɑ/	‘room’	/dɪvɑr/	‘wall’
/ɾ/	---	---	/cʰərɪ/	‘stick’	/kɪcər/	‘mud’
			/ʃʰɑrʊ/	‘broom’	/kəŋkər/	‘pebble’
			/sərək/	‘road’	/guɾ/	‘jaggery’
/ɾʰ/	---	---	/kərʰɑi/	‘embroidery’	/bərʰ/	‘flood’
			/gərʰɑ/	‘thick/	/rɪɾʰ/	‘spine’
				condensed’	/ənpərʰ/	‘illiterate’
/l/			/pərʰɑi/	‘studies/		
				reading’		
/l/	/lɑl/	‘red’	/kəlɾʰɔl/	‘ladle’	/kʰel/	‘games’
	/lohɑr/	‘blacksmith’	/dəlɑl/	‘broker’	/dɔrɾbəl/	‘weak’
	/ləmbɑ/	‘tall (male)’	/ləlɑɾ/	‘forehead’	/dɑl/	‘pulse’
/v/	/vɪʃ/	‘poison’	/sərouər/	‘lake’	/gʰɑv/	‘wound’
	/vɪvɑh/	‘marriage’	/dəvɑi/	‘medicine’	/ləgɑv/	‘attachment’
	/vɪprɪt/	‘opposite’	/bʰəvən/	‘building’	/ɔtsɑv/	‘festival’
/j/	/jəɾɪ/	‘if’	/kojla/	‘coal’	/gɑj/	‘cow’

/jəntɾə/	‘machine’	/dəjd/	‘mercy’	/cəj/	‘tea’
/jəkɾɪt/	‘liver’	/nəjd/	‘new’	/nɪɳəj/	‘judgement’

Note: /f/ and /z/ sounds are not included in the basic set of consonants that are officially recognized as the Hindi consonant sounds. Loan words from English, Portuguese and Persian (including the words that Persian itself borrowed from Arabic and Turkish) are represented by using these sounds. Being Persian in origin, these are considered as the defining feature of Urdu, although these sounds officially exist in Hindi and modified Devanagari characters are available to represent them; they are - ‘फ़’ /f/ and ‘ज़’ /z/ respectively. A diacritic mark called Nuqta (.) is introduced in Devanagari script to represent the sounds that are not present in the original script. It takes the form of a dot placed below a character and the idea is inspired from the Arabic script. For example - /fəɾf/ ‘floor’; /məɾɪz/ ‘patient’ etc.

Allophonic Variation of Hindi Consonants

Allophones are the contextual variants of the same phoneme which are pronounced in different ways, depending on its position in a word, its surrounding sounds and other phonological factors. These allophonic variations are often influenced by the factors such as the sounds that come before and after it and the speaker’s regional accent etc.

- In Hindi, retroflex /ʂ/ occurs as a phonologically conditioned allophone of alveolar /ʃ/ where it is followed by the homorganic stop sounds. For example:

Hindi Word	Gloss	Phonemic Transcription	Phonetic Transcription (allophonic)
विनष्ट	‘destroyed’	/vɪnəʃt/	[vɪnəʂt]
प्रतिष्ठान	‘establishment’	/prətiʃtʰan/	[prətiʂtʰan]

- In Hindi, voiced labio-velar approximant /w/ occurs as a phonologically conditioned allophone of labio-dental approximant /v/ when it is pronounced in onglide position i.e. between an onset consonant and a following vowel. For example:

Hindi Word	Gloss	Phonemic Transcription	Phonetic Transcription (allophonic)
पकवान	‘dish’	/pəkvan/	[pəkwan]
मशवरा	‘advice’	/məʃvəɾa/	[məʃwəɾa]

Consonant Sequence

A consonant sequence refers to two or more consonant sounds that occur together without an intervening vowel sound. Consonant sequences are a very common feature in many languages and they can occur within a syllable as well as across syllable boundaries. Different languages have different rules governing which consonant can occur together in a sequence while others are rare and non-existent. There are generally two types of consonant sequences available in a language – (i) Homogeneous Consonant Sequence and (ii) Heterogeneous Consonant Sequence.

(i) Homogeneous Consonant Sequence

A Homogeneous consonant sequence refers to a sequence of two or more consonants (without an intervening vowel sound) that share the same place and manner of articulation. In other words, all the consonants in the sequence are produced by using the same part of the mouth cavity and in the same manner. Distribution of Homogeneous consonant sequences of Hindi are as follows:

Consonant Sequence	Initial		Medial		Final	
/pp/	---	---	/t ^h appəɽ maɽna/ t ^h appa/	‘to slap’ ‘stamp’	---	---
/bb/	---	---	/d̪ɪbba/ k ^h əbba haɽ ^h /	‘box’ ‘left hand’	---	---
/mm/	---	---	/cəmməc/ səmmaɽ/	‘spoon’ ‘respect’	---	---
/tt/	---	---	/kəɽta/ pəɽta/	‘dog’ ‘leaf’	---	---
/dd/	---	---	/kəɽdu/ gəɽda/	‘pumpkin’ ‘mattress’	---	---
/nn/	---	---	/pəɽna/ gəɽna/	‘emerald’ ‘sugarcane’	---	---
/cc/	---	---	/kəcca/ səccai/	‘raw’ ‘truth’	---	---
/ʃʃ/	---	---	/c ^h əʃʃa/	‘terrace’	---	---

			/ləʃʃɑ/	‘shame’		
/t/	---	---	/mɪt̪i/	‘clay’	---	---
			/kʰəʈ̪ɑ/	‘sour’		
/d̪/	---	---	/həɖd̪i/	‘bone’	---	---
			/kəbəɖd̪i/	‘kabadi’		
/k/	---	---	/pəkka/	‘ripe’	---	---
			/ekkɪs/	‘twenty-one’		
/s/	---	---	/rəssi/	‘rope’	---	---
			/gussa/	‘anger’		
/r/	---	---	/bərre/	‘wasp’	---	---
			/ʃʰərri/	‘wrinkle’		
/l/	---	---	/əllu/	‘owl’	---	---
			/məlləh/	‘boatman’		

(ii) Heterogeneous Consonant Sequence

A Heterogeneous Consonant Sequence refers to a sequence of two or more consonants (without an intervening vowel sound) that belong to different phonetic classes or articulatory manners. In other words, a heterogeneous consonant sequence is a sequence in which the consonants have different manners of articulation or point of articulation. Distribution of Heterogeneous consonant sequences of Hindi are as follows:

Consonant Sequence	Initial		Medial		Final
/mp/	---	---	/səmpətti/	‘property’	/bʰukəmp/ ‘earthquake’
			/səmpədən/	‘editing’	
/mb/	---	---	/ləmba/	‘tall’	---
			/təmbəkʰu/	‘tobacco’	---
/mbʰ/	---	---	/səmbʰaɪnə/	‘to handle’	/stəmbʰ/ ‘pillar’
			/səmbʰəʊ/	‘possible’	/arəmbʰ/ ‘beginning’
/nt/	---	---	/əntɪm/	‘last’	/ʃant/ ‘sober’
			/əntɪs/	‘twenty-nine’	/sənt/ ‘saint’

/ntʰ/	---	---	/məntʰən/	‘churn’	/grəntʰ/	‘book’
			/grəntʰɪ/	‘gland’	/pəntʰ/	‘way’
/ntɾ/	---	---	/məntɾi/	‘minister’	/məntɾ/	‘spell’
			/jəntɾə/	‘machine’	/təntɾ/	‘system’
/nd/	---	---	/bəndər/	‘monkey’	/cənd/	‘moon’
			/bənduk/	‘gun’	/ənənd/	‘happiness’
/ndʰ/	---	---	/kəndʰɑ/	‘shoulder’	/sugəndʰ/	‘fragrance’
			/əndʰɑ/	‘blind’		
/ŋʈ/	---	---	/kəŋʈək/	‘thorn’	---	---
			/əvəŋʈən/	‘allotment’		
/ŋɖ/	---	---	/məŋɖəli/	‘circle’	/kəŋɖ/	‘scandal/scam’
			/kəŋɖəl/	‘earring’	/kʰəŋɖ/	‘section’
/ŋk/	---	---	/ʃəŋka/	‘doubt’	/əŋk/	‘number’
			/ɖəŋka/	‘drum’	/kələŋk/	‘stigma’
/ŋkʰ/	---	---	/pəŋkʰɑ/	‘fan’	/pəŋkʰ/	‘wing’
			/səŋkʰja/	‘number’	/ʃəŋkʰ/	‘conch’
/ŋg/	---	---	/pətəŋga/	‘moth’	/pətəŋg/	‘kite’
			/bəŋgni/	‘purple’	/əŋg/	‘body’
/ŋgʰ/	---	---	/səŋgʰərʃ/	‘struggle’	/səŋgʰ/	‘union’
			/ləŋgʰna/	‘to overstep’		
/tɾ/	/tɾən/	‘relief’	/ʃətrə/	‘enemy’	---	---
	/tɾəʃ/	‘awe’	/jətri/	‘traveller’		
/ɖɾ/	/ɖɾɪʃtɪ/	‘vision’	/səmɔɖrə/	‘sea’	---	---
	/ɖɾɪʈʰ/	‘strong’	/rɔɖrə/	‘fierce’		
/pɾ/	/prəjog/	‘application’	/nɪʃpɾən/	‘dead’	---	---
	/prem/	‘love’	/əprətɪm/	‘amazing’		
/br/	/brahmən/	‘cast name’	/kəbrə/	‘grave’	---	---
	/brət/	‘fasting’	/səbrə/	‘patience’		
/bʰɾ/	/bʰrəm/	‘illusion’	/əbʰrək/	‘mica’	---	---
	/bʰrəʃtɪ/	‘corrupt’	/ʃɔbʰrə/	‘white’		

/st/	/stər/	‘level’	/səsta/	‘cheap’	/dəst/	‘diarrhea’
	/stəmbʰ/	‘pillar’	/ʒəsta/	‘zinc’	/vəst/	‘busy’
/stʰ/	/stʰən/	‘place’	/astʰə/	‘belief’	— — —	— — —
	/stʰɪr/	‘static’	/sənstʰə/	‘institution’		
/str/	/stri/	‘female’	/əstrə/	‘weapon’	— — —	— — —
			/vəstrə/	‘clothes’		

2.1.2. Phonemic Contrast

Phonemic contrast refers to the minimal phonemic difference between two almost identical words due to the difference of a distinctive sound or phoneme that serves to distinguish the words from each other. These phonemes are usually perceived as separate and distinct units of sound by the native speakers of a particular language and changing one phoneme for another can change the meaning of the words. These set of words that differ from each other by only one phoneme (or two phonemes in case of ‘Sub-Minimal Pairs’) are called ‘Minimal Pairs’ and they are used to demonstrate the phonemic contrast of a language, as they show how by changing one phoneme the meaning of a word can be changed. Minimal Pairs can be very useful to establish the phonemic inventory of a language as they help to identify the sounds that are phonemically contrastive in a language.

Phonemic Contrast in Vowels of Hindi

Vowels are the fundamental component of the sound system of any language and the phonemic contrast in vowels is very crucial for establishing the vowel phonemes of a particular language. Hindi has a rich vowel system with 10 vowels some of which can be short or long. Length of vowels is phonemic in Hindi which means that changing one vowel for another can change the meaning of the word.

Vowels in Contrast	Word	Gloss	Word	Gloss
/i/ ~ /ɪ/	/mil/	‘mile’	/mɪl(nə)/	‘to meet’
/e/ ~ /ɛ/	/mel/	‘harmony’	/mɛl/	‘dirt’
/ə/ ~ /o/	/dəst/	‘diarrhea’	/dost/	‘friend’
/ə/ ~ /u/	/pʰəl/	‘fruit’	/pʰul/	‘flower’
/ɔ/ ~ /u/	/kɔl/	‘lineage’	/kul/	‘shore’
/ɔ/ ~ /o/	/bɔl/	‘ball’	/bol/	‘tell (Imp.)’
/a/ ~ /o/	/pʰɑrɳa/	‘to tear’	/pʰoɳna/	‘to break’

Phonemic Contrast in Consonants of Hindi

Phonemic contrasts among consonants is the distinction in meaning that is created by the substitution of one consonant sound or phoneme for another. Specific phonemic contrasts among the consonants of a particular language are very important part of that language's sound system and contribute a lot to its uniqueness. Different languages have different set of consonants and different phonemic contrasts among them. For example, some languages may have a contrast between voiced and voiceless consonants, such as the contrast between /p/ and /b/ in English; other languages may have a phonemic contrast between aspirated and unaspirated consonants such as the contrast between /p/ and /p^h/ in Hindi.

Consonants in Contrast	Word	Gloss	Word	Gloss
/p/ ~ /p ^h /	/pəl/	'moment'	/p ^h əl/	'fruit'
/p/ ~ /b/	/pəcpən/	'fifty-five'	/bəcpən/	'childhood'
/b/ ~ /b ^h /	/balu/	'sand'	/b ^h alu/	'bear'
/b/ ~ /m/	/bal/	'hair'	/mal/	'goods'
/t/ ~ /t ^h /	/tali/	'clap'	/t ^h ali/	'plate'
/t/ ~ /d/	/tal/	'beat'	/dal/	'pulse'
/d/ ~ /d ^h /	/dan/	'donation'	/d ^h an/	'paddy'
/t/ ~ /n/	/tala/	'lock'	/nala/	'drain'
/c/ ~ /c ^h /	/caṭna/	'to lick'	/c ^h āṭna/	'to trim'
/c ^h / ~ /ʃ/	/c ^h anna/	'to strain'	/ʃanna/	'to know'
/ʃ/ ~ /ʃ ^h /	/ʃag(na)/	'to wake up'	/ʃ ^h ag /	'foam/ lather'
/t̪/ ~ /t̪ ^h /	/t̪əppa (k ^h ana)/	'to bounce off'	/t̪ ^h əppa/	'stamp'
/t̪/ ~ /d̪/	/t̪alna/	'to ignore'	/d̪alna/	'to pour'
/d̪/ ~ /d̪ ^h /	/d̪al/	'branch of a tree'	/d̪ ^h al/	'shield'
/t̪/ ~ /ŋ/	/koṭ/	'coat'	/koŋ/	'angle'
/k/ ~ /k ^h /	/kali/	'black (adj.-fem.)'	/k ^h ali/	'empty'
/k/ ~ /g/	/kal/	'span of time'	/gal/	'chick'
/g/ ~ /g ^h /	/gora/	'fair (adj.-mas.)'	/g ^h oṛa/	'horse'
/ŋ/ ~ /k ^h /	/siŋ/	'horn'	/sik ^h /	'lesson'
/h/ ~ /k/	/həm/	'we'	/kəm/	'less'
/f/ ~ /k/	/fəɾz/	'duty'	/kəɾz/	'debt'
/s/ ~ /ʃ/	/sal/	'year'	/ʃal/	'shawl'
/z/ ~ /b/	/azad/	'free'	/abad/	'habitable'
/l/ ~ /ɾ/	/lal/	'red'	/laɾ/	'saliva'

/ɾ/ ~ /ɾʰ/	/bəɾa/	‘big (adj.-mas.)’	/bəɾʰa/	‘to increase (IMP)’
/ʋ/ ~ /j/	/ʋaɾ/	‘attack’	/jaɾ/	‘friend’

2.1.3 Supra-Segmental Phonemes

Supra-Segmental phonemes, also known as prosodic features or supra-segmentals refers those aspects of speech that extend over multiple phonemes or syllables. The supra-segmental features are generally phonemic in nature i.e. they can change the meaning of a word or sentence of a particular language.

(A) Length of Vowel

The length of vowel refers to the duration of its sound. Vowels can be either short or long and the length of vowel can be a phonemic feature in some languages, meaning that it can distinguish words with different meanings; as in Hindi. This phenomenon can be explained with the help of several pair of vowels where the only difference between the words of each pair is the length of the vowel.

Vowels in Contrast	Word	Gloss	Word	Gloss
/ɪ/ ~ /i/	/dɪn/	‘day’	/dɪn/	‘poor’
	/mɪl(na)/	‘to meet’	/mil/	‘mile’
/ʊ/ ~ /u/	/kʊl/	‘lineage’	/kul/	‘shore’
	/akʊt/	‘intention’	/əkut/	‘immense’

Distribution of these short and long pair of vowels has already been shown in the section 2.1.1. under the heading of ‘Distribution of Vowels’

(B) Nasalization

Nasalization of vowels is a phonetic feature that occurs when lung-air is allowed to flow through the nasal cavity during the production of a vowel sound. In other words, nasalization happens when a vowel is pronounced with the velum (soft palate) lowered, allowing the air to escape through the nose while the sound is being produced. This phenomenon can be explained with the help of several pair of vowels where the only difference between the words of each pair is the nasalized vowel. For example:

Vowels in Contrast	Word	Gloss	Word	Gloss
/a/ ~ /ã/	/sas/	‘mother-in-law’	/sãs/	‘breath’
	/bas/	‘bad smell’	/bãs/	‘bamboo’

Distribution of Nasalized Vowels:

Vowel	Initial		Medial		Final	
/ĩ/	/ĩt/	‘brick’	/c ^h ĩk/	‘sneeze’	/jəhĩ/	‘here only’
/ẽ/	— — —	— — —	/rẽɽi ka tel/	‘castor oil’	/mẽ/	‘in’
/ē/	— — —	— — —	/b ^h ēs/	‘buffalo’	/mē/	‘I’
/ã/	— — —	— — —	/hãsnɑ/	‘to laugh’	— — —	— — —
/ũ/	/ũt/	‘camel’	/pũc ^h /	‘tail’	/kjũ/	‘why’
/õ/	/õt ^h /	‘lip’	/cõc/	‘beak’	/ləɽkõ/	‘boys (pl.)’
/õ/	— — —	— — —	/sõp ^h /	‘aniseed’	/b ^h õ/	‘eyebrow’
/ã/	/ãk ^h /	‘eye’	/bãs/	‘bamboo’	/mã/	‘mother’

2.2. Syllable Structure

A syllable is a unit of sound composed of a central peak of sonority (Robins 1968) and the consonants that cluster around this central peak. Syllables are often considered as the phonological "building blocks" of words. A syllable may contain only one sound as a peak, one onset and a peak, one peak and a coda or a peak preceded by an onset and followed by a coda. Syllable that end on peak (vowel) is known as open syllable ([+Open]) while syllable that has consonant at last is known as close syllable ([-Open]). Onset and coda as well as peak of the syllable may have more than one phoneme in the form of cluster. The structures of syllable noticed in the present study are as follows;

	Structure	Openness	Example	
i)	V	[+Open]	/a/	‘come (Imp)’
ii)	VC	[-Open]	/ɪt/	‘brick’
iii)	CV	[+Open]	/no/	‘nine’
iv)	CVC	[-Open]	/la/	‘red’
v)	VCV	[+Open]	/eɪ/	‘heel’
vi)	CCV	[+Open]	/kja/	‘what’
vii)	VCC	[-Open]	/ənʃk/	‘number’
viii)	CCCV	[+Open]	/stri/	‘woman’
ix)	CCVCC	[-Open]	/svərq/	‘heaven’

2.3. Syllabic Pattern

The syllabic patterns found in Hindi words are; monosyllabic, disyllabic, tri-syllabic and polysyllabic as follows:

Monosyllabic Pattern

	Pattern	Example	
i)	V	/ɑ/	‘come (Imp.)’
ii)	VC	/ĩt/	‘brick’
iii)	CV	/nɔ/	‘nine’
iv)	CVC	/gɑl/	‘cheek’
v)	CVCC	/ʃəŋkʰ/	‘conch’
vi)	CCVCC	/sʊərg/	‘heaven’

Disyllabic Pattern

	Pattern	Example	
i)	V-CV	/ũca/	‘high’
ii)	CV-CV	/pila/	‘yellow’
iii)	VC-CV	/əccʰɑ/	‘good’
iv)	V-CVC	/ɑdət/	‘habit’
v)	CV-CVC	/kɪtab/	‘book’
vi)	CVC-CVC	/ɦɪmmət/	‘courage’
vii)	CVC-CV	/kʰətɾɑ/	‘danger’
viii)	VC-CVC	/ənpɐɽʰ/	‘illiterate’

Tri-Syllabic Pattern

	Pattern	Example	
i)	CV-CV-CV	/kɔɭʰɑɽi/	‘axe’
ii)	CV-CV-CVC	/ʃəmanət/	‘bail’
iii)	V-CVC-CVC	/əsɪrvad/	‘blessing’
iv)	CV-CVC-CV	/kəbədɖi/	‘kabaddi’
v)	CVC-CV-CV	/ʃɔɾmana/	‘penalty’
vi)	CV-CV-CVC	/həʋalat/	‘lock-up’
vii)	CVC-CVC-CV	/mombətti/	‘wax candle’

Polysyllabic Pattern

	Pattern	Example	
i)	V-CV-CV-CV	/əbʰineta/	‘actor’
iii)	CV-CV-CV-CV	/məɭerɪja/	‘malaria’

iii)	CVC-CV-CV-CV	/rɑʃkumari/	‘queen’
iv)	CCVC-CV-CV-CV	/gʰritkumari/	‘aloevera’
v)	CV-CV-CV-CV-CV	/səhɑnbʰuti/	‘sympathy’

3. MORPHOPHONEMICS

Morpho-phonemics is a branch of linguistics that studies the interactions between morphological and phonological processes in a language. It focuses on the ways in which meaning and function of words are influenced by their phonological structure and how phonological processes can shape the morphemic structure of words. Overall, this is an important area of linguistic study as it provides insights into how the sound system and the minimum meaningful units (morphemes) of a language interact with each other. The interaction between morphological and phonological processes is complex and multifaceted in Mainpuri. There are few examples how morpho-phonemics operates in Mainpuri. These are as follows:

(A) Deletion

Deletion is a phonological process that involves the omission or removal of a sound segment, such as a consonant or vowel, from a word. In this process, a sound that would normally be pronounced is dropped or not produced at all and that causes change in the morphemic level. Deletion is a very common process in many languages and can occur due to various reasons, such as simplifying speech, reducing effort in pronunciation or conforming to specific phonological rules.

In Hindi, ‘vowel deletion’ is an important morpho-phonemic phenomenon which is generally found in the ‘tadbhava’ words that have originated from Sanskrit language. The Sanskrit words that have retained their exact forms are called the ‘tatsama’ words, whereas, the words that have undergone some changes in pronunciation as well as orthography over time but still retain their Sanskrit roots are called the ‘tadbhava’ words. In Hindi many instances have been found where this ‘vowel deletion’ (mostly /ə/) process has been operated on the ‘tatsama’ words in order to get their ‘tadbhava’ counterparts.

Sanskrit Form (tatsama)	Gloss	Hindi Form (tadbhava)
/devəta/	‘deity’	/devta/
/prəcəlɪt/	‘prevalent/ popular’	/prəclɪt/
/acərəŋ/	‘behaviour’	/acrəŋ/
/əbəla/	‘woman’	/əbla/
/apəsi/	‘among each other’	/apsi/
/kundəru/	‘a kind of vegetable’	/kundru/
/godəvəri/	‘name of a river’	/godavri/

(B) Insertion

Insertion is a phonological process that involves the addition of a sound segment (mostly vowels) to a word causing a change in the morphemic level. Insertion generally occurs facilitate the pronunciation of a word by reducing the effort in pronunciation. Insertion is a

very common process in many languages and we can find its traces in Hindi as well; if not in the standardized variety these forms are widely used in the regional varieties.

Original Form	Gloss	Form After Vowel Insertion
/kərm/	‘deed’	/kəɾəm/
/bərʃ/	‘year’	/bəɾəs/

(C) Deletion and Compensatory Lengthening

Compensatory lengthening is a phonological process in which deletion of certain consonants lead to the lengthening of vowels. This process occurs when a vowel sound is lengthened to fill the space left by the deletion of a consonant sound in the same or adjacent syllable. Various examples of compensatory lengthening can be found in Hindi.

Original Form	Gloss	Form After Compensatory Lengthening
/cəndrə/	‘moon’	/cāḍ/
/pəncə/	‘five’	/pāc/
/sərpə/	‘snake’	/sāp/
/əʃru/	‘tears’	/āsu/
/svəsə/	‘breath’	/sās/

In the above examples, the word-medial consonant clusters are simplified with the compensatory lengthening of the preceding vowels. If the cluster consisted of a nasal followed by a consonant, the nasal is deleted and the preceding vowel was lengthened and nasalized (Ohala, 1983); as we find in case of /cāḍ/ and /pāc/.

However, not all nasalized vowels in Hindi had nasals in their environment historically as in case of /sāp/ (sərpə), /āsu/ (əʃru) and /sās/ (svəsə). Those nasalized vowels of modern Hindi that did not have any nasal environment in their earlier forms and still get nasalized, are said to be the result of ‘spontaneous nasalization’ (Grierson, 1922).

4. MORPHOLOGY

Morphology is a branch of linguistic studies that deals with the study of words, their internal structure, and the way they are formed and related to each other in a language. It is concerned with the analysis of the smallest meaningful units of language, called morphemes and the rules that govern their combination to form words. Morphology is a very crucial area of linguistic studies as it examines how morphemes are combined to form different types of words and also deals with the changes that occur within words to indicate different grammatical categories.

4.1. Word Formation Process

Word formation process refers to the ways in which new words are created or formed in language. It involves the application of various morphological rules and processes to existing words or parts of words to generate new lexical items that are recognized by the speakers of the language. Different languages have their own unique word formation processes and rules that speakers use to create new words. The common word formation processes present in Hindi are as follows:

A) Affixation

Affixation is morphological process in which a bound morpheme, called an affix, is added to a base or root word to create a new word or a word with a different meaning or function. An affix can be either a prefix which is attached to the beginning of a base word or a suffix which is added to the end of the base word.

Prefixation

Prefix		Base Word				New Word	
/nɪr-/ [nɪh-]	+	/dɒʃ/		‘fault’	=	/nɪrdɒʃ/	‘innocent’
/bəd/	+	/surət/		‘face’	=	/bədsurət/	‘ugly’
/əp/	+	/man/		‘esteem’	=	/əpman/	‘insult’

Suffixation

Base Word			Suffix			New Word
/ʃəŋgəl/	‘forest’	+	/-i/	=	/ʃəŋgli/	‘wild’
/ʃɪkər/	‘hunting’	+	/-i/	=	/ʃɪkəri/	‘hunter’
/āk ^h /	‘eye’	+	/-ě/	=	/āk ^h ě/	‘eyes’

B) Reduplication

Reduplication is a morphological process in which a part or the whole word is repeated to create a new word with a similar or related meaning. Reduplication can be full or partial. The following word will exemplify reduplication as a word formation process in Hindi.

/kəb ^{hi} /	+	/kəb ^{hi} /	=	/kəb ^{hi} kəb ^{hi} /	‘sometimes’
/bəɾe/	+	/bəɾe/	=	/bəɾe bəɾe/	‘big’
/k ^h ət/	+	/k ^h ət(ana)/	=	/k ^h ət k ^h ətana/	‘to knock’

C) Compounding

Compounding is a word formation process in which two or more words are combined together to create a new word. In this process, the individual words are called constituent elements and the newly created word is called the compound. The following word will exemplify compounding as a word formation process in Hindi.

Noun		Noun		Compound Word		
/mata/	‘mother’	+	/pita/	‘father’	= /matapita/	‘parents’
/mom/	‘wax’	+	/bætti/	‘light’	= /mombætti/	‘wax candle’
/gilli/	‘gilli’	+	/d̪ənd̪a/	‘stick’	= /gillid̪ənd̪a/	‘a game’

Adjective		Noun		Compound Word		
/həvai/	‘related to air’	+	/ʃəhaz/	‘ship’	= /həvaiʃəhaz/	‘aero-plane’
/kali/	‘black’	+	/m̪iɾc/	‘chilly’	= /kalim̪iɾc/	‘black pepper’
/kəm/	‘less’	+	/zor/	‘strength’	= /kəmzor/	‘weak’

D) Borrowing

Borrowing is a word formation process in which words are borrowed or adopted from one language into another. When a word is borrowed, it is often adopted to fit the phonological, morphological and syntactic rules of the borrowing language and thus it has been nativized in that particular language. Few examples of borrowed words from Hindi language are cited below:

Source Language	Word	English	Source Language	Word	English
-	/cək/	‘chalk’	Persian/Arabic -	/fajda/	‘profit’
	/bəs/	‘bus’		/səfed/	‘white’
	/tikət/	‘ticket’		/zənʃir/	‘chain’

4.2. Word Class

Word Class, also known as parts of speech, refers to a set of words that display the same formal properties, especially in their inflections and distribution. This is a grammatical category that classifies words based on their syntactic and semantic role in a sentence. The word classes that have been realized in Hindi are as follows:

Noun

Noun is a type of word class that represents a person, place, thing or concept. It is the most commonly found word class in any language and can be inflected to indicate grammatical categories such as number, gender and case.

Examples-

/ɾam/	‘name of a person’
/ɾaʃəstʰan/	‘name of a place’
/kələm/	‘pen’
/cɪɾa/	‘bird’
/anand/	‘happiness’

Pronoun

Pronouns are that type of word that can be used to replace or refer to a noun. Pronouns may be Personal, Demonstrative, Relative, Interrogative and Reflexive in nature.

Examples-	/təm/	‘you’
	/mera/	‘my’
	/təm kʰɔd/	‘yourself’

Verb

Verb is a type of word class that typically expresses an action, event or state of being. Verbs can be used to describe a wide range of actions or occurrences from physical movements to mental processes. Verbs can also be inflected to indicate the tense, aspect or mood of a sentence which can help to convey additional information about the action or event being described.

Examples-	/kaɾna/	‘to bite’
	/bādhna/	‘to bind’
	/moɾna/	‘to bend’

Adjective

An adjective is a word class that describes or modifies a noun or pronoun by providing additional information about its qualities, characteristics or attributes.

Examples-	/bəɽɑ/	‘big’
	/kʰali/	‘empty’
	/əccʰɑ/	‘good’

Adverb

An adverb is a word that modifies or describes a verb, adjective or other adverbs. Adverbs typically provide information about the manner, time, frequency, degree or place of an action.

Examples-	/dʰirese/	‘slowly’
	/bad mē/	‘afterwards’
	/dopəhɛɾ/	‘good’

Postposition

A postposition is a type of grammatical particle that is placed after a noun or pronoun to indicate its grammatical relationship with another element in the sentence. Postpositions are similar to prepositions which are placed before a noun or pronoun, but they are used in different languages.

Examples-	/pəɾ/	‘on’
	/mē/	‘into’
	/pas/	‘near’

Conjunction

A conjunction is a word class that connects words, phrases, clauses or sentences. Conjunctions can be used to express relationships between different elements in a sentence, such as addition, contrast, cause and effect etc.

Examples-	/ləkɪn/	‘but’
	/jɑ/	‘or’
	/jədi/	‘if’

Interjection

Interjection is a word class that expresses some kind of emotions or sentiment in a sentence. There is no clear-cut evidence interjection in Hindi except few words like – /hɑj/, /vɑh/ etc. Exclamatory sentences can be produced without any interjection word; intonation plays an important role here. The emotion is expressed by the speaker with the help of intonation.

- /təm kɪtne ləmbe ho gɛje ho/
2SG how tall be go.PST be
‘How tall you have grown!’

Example-

- /ʊəh əb^{hi}b^{hi} jəʋən ləg-tə hɛ/
3SG still young seem-PFV be.PRS.3SG
'He seems still young!'
- /əkəʃ mē kitnə sundər indrəd^hənuʃ hɛ/
Sky in how beautiful rainbow be.PRS.3SG
'What a beautiful rainbow is in the sky!'
- /ʊəh! kɪtni pjaɾi jəgə hɛ/
Int. what lovely place be.PRS.3SG
'Wow! What a lovely place is this!'
- /həj! mē bərbəd ho gɛja/
/Int.! I ruined be.PST.1SG/
'Alas! I am ruined'

Declinable and Indeclinable Word Classes

These Hindi word classes can be broadly divided into two that is declinable and indeclinable categories, depending upon the nature of their own. Those word class which decline for number, gender, person etc. are referred to as Declinable category; for example, Noun, Pronoun, Adjective and Verb. And those which do not decline for number, gender, person etc. fall under the indeclinable category; for example; Postposition, Conjunction, Adverbs and Participle.

4.3. Noun Morphology

Noun is a member of the word class that includes words which refer to people, places, things, ideas, or concepts and whose members may act as any of the followings: subjects of the verb, objects of the verb, indirect object of the verb, or object of a preposition or postposition. Noun Morphology deals with the forms and classification of Nouns, Pronouns and their declensional/ inflectional pattern in association with Gender, Number, and Adjective etc. The nouns in the language are marked by two numbers (singular and plural), two genders (i.e. masculine, and feminine); and seven cases (nominative, accusative, dative, ablative, genitive, locative and instrumental).

4.3.1. Internal Structure

The internal structure of nouns includes two main components: the base or root word and any affixes (if any) added to it. Based on the internal structure of noun, it can be categorized into two broad classes, namely, (A) Basic Nouns and (B) Derived Nouns.

(A) Basic Nouns

Basic Nouns are those which are a word class by themselves and are not derived from any other word class.

Example:	/rɑk ^h /	‘ash’
	/mɪtʃi/	‘clay’
	/bæccə	‘baby’

The Basic Nouns can be further divided into i) Countable Noun and ii) Uncountable Noun.

i) Uncountable Noun

An Uncountable Noun, also known as mass noun, refers to a noun that cannot be counted or quantified by a number. They are always in singular form.

Example:	/dud ^h /	‘milk’
	/hɑt/	‘defeat’
	/təp/	‘heat’

ii) Countable Noun

A Countable Noun refers to a noun that can be counted or qualified by a number and which can take some suffixes for indicating plurality.

Example:	/ɑdmi/	‘human’
	/kələm/	‘pen’
	/peɪ/	‘tree’

(B) Derived Nouns

A noun that contains more than one morpheme by means of its root taking one or more affixes is called a Derived Noun. It refers to all those nouns which are derived from the same or any other word class.

Derived Nouns are formed in two ways – i) By adding suffixes to other words or ii) By Compounding Words.

i) **By adding suffixes to other words**

Root/ Base Word			Suffix		New Word
/ʃəŋgəl/	‘forest’	+	/-i/	=	/ʃəŋgli/ ‘wild’
/maŋg/	‘demand’	+	/-na/	=	/maŋgna/ ‘to ask for’
/bəcca/	‘child’	+	/-pən/	=	/bəcpən/ ‘childhood’

ii) **By Compounding Words**

Word			Word		Compound Word
/bəl/	‘bull’	+	/gaɾi/	‘vehicle’	= /bəlgaɾi/ ‘bullock cart’
/dʌk/	‘postage’	+	/gʰər/	‘house’	= /dʌkgʰər/ ‘post office’
/ʃəl/	‘water’	+	/ʋajʌ/	‘air’	= /ʃəlʋajʌ/ ‘climate’

4.3.2. External Structure

External structure of nouns is very important to understand in order to use it correctly in a sentence and to modify it appropriately with other words. Number, Gender and Case are very important external structures of noun as they affect the ways it modifies the other lexical categories in a sentence as well as the way sentences are constructed to convey a particular meaning.

(A) Number

Number is a grammatical category which is morphologically marked at the noun or noun phrase. In nominal inflections there are generally two morphologically marked numbers i.e. Singular and Plural (some languages can have ‘dual’ number). Singular is the default value for number which is generally left unmarked and plurality is marked by affixing plural markers to the base form. The detailed description of the number system in Hindi is as follows:

- **In some cases, number distinction is realized through Zero Modification -**

Plural Morpheme	Singular		Plural	
/-Ø/	/əŋgur/	‘grape’	/əŋgur/	‘grapes’
	/ɾaʃa/	‘king’	/ɾaʃa/	‘kings’
	/mor/	‘peacock’	/mor/	‘peacocks’

- In some cases, number distinction is realized through Alteration of Vowel -

Vowels	Singular		Plural	
/a/ → /e/	/ləṭka/	‘boy’	/ləṭke/	‘boys’
	/bəcca/	‘child’	/bəcce/	‘children’
	/g ^h oṭa/	‘horse’	/g ^h oṭe/	‘horses’

- In some cases, number distinction is realized through Suffixation -

Plural Morpheme	Singular		Plural	
/ẽ/	/kɪtab/	‘book’	/kɪtabẽ/	‘books’
	/āk ^h /	‘eye’	/āk ^h ẽ/	‘eyes’
	/vədtə/	‘thing’	/vəstəẽ/	‘things’
/o/*	/ḍakṭə/	‘bandit’	/ḍakṭo/	‘bandits’
	/səd ^h ṭə/	‘sage’	/səd ^h ṭo/	‘sages’
	/baṛṭə/	‘arm’	/baṛṭo/	‘arms’
/õ/*	/gərib/	‘poor’	/gəribõ/	‘poor (pl.)’
	/g ^h əṛ/	‘house’	/g ^h əṛõ/	‘houses’
	/peṭ/	‘tree’	/peṭõ/	‘trees’
/ā/	/ləṭki/	‘girl’	/ləṭkiā/	‘girls’
	/ṭokṛi/	‘basket’	/ṭokṛiā/	‘baskets’
	/cabi/	‘key’	/cabiā/	‘keys’

- * **Note:** The plural forms that ends with /-o/ or /-õ/ are required to be followed by the Postpositions such as /-mẽ/, /-se/, /-ne/, /-ke/, /-ko/ etc.

(B) Gender

Gender is a grammatical category that distinguishes nouns, pronouns and adjectives by the different inflections which they have and which determines their relationship with other words that are syntactically associated with them. Gender is a grammatical category in Hindi i.e. the gender distinction in noun and pronoun has its effect on the syntactic structure of the language. Gender distinction in Hindi can be realized in the following ways:0

- In some cases, gender distinction is indicated through separate set of lexical items –

Masculine

/pɪtɑ/	‘father’
/bʰɑɪ/	‘brother’
/pɔrɔʃ/	‘male’

Feminine

/mata/	‘mother’
/bɛhɛn/	‘sister’
/stri/	‘female’

- In some cases, gender distinction is indicated by adding the suffix /-i/ -

Masculine

/lɔʔkɑ/	‘boy’
/gʰɔʔɑ/	‘horse’
/sala/	‘wife’s brother’

Feminine

/lɔʔki/	‘girl’
/gʰɔʔi/	‘mare’
/sali/	‘wife’s sister’

- In some cases, gender distinction is indicated by adding the suffix /-n/ -

Masculine

/dɔlhɑ/	‘bridegroom’
/natɪ/	‘daughter’s son’
/səmdʰi/	‘daughter-in-law’s father’

Feminine

/dɔlhən/	‘bride’
/natɪn/	‘daughter’s daughter’
/səmdʰən/	‘daughter-in-law’s father’

- In some cases, gender distinction is indicated by adding the suffix /-ani/ -

Masculine

/pəti/	‘husband’
/devər/	‘husband’s younger brother’
/ʃetʰ/	‘husband’s elder brother’

Feminine

/pətni/	‘wife’
/devrəni/	‘husband’s younger brother’s wife’
/ʃetʰəni/	‘husband’s elder brother’s wife’

(C) Case

Case is a grammatical category that marks the relationship between a noun or pronoun and other elements within a sentence, such as, the verb, prepositions or other nouns. The case of a noun or pronoun is typically indicated by inflectional ending that is added to the base form of the word.

i) Nominative Case

The nominative case generally marks the subject of a verb or the predicate noun or predicate adjective which is either a noun or a pronoun. The nominative case in Hindi is unmarked or marked as null (*/Ø/*) as shown in the in following examples;

- /mɛ- Ø bəʃɑr ʃɑtɑ hũ/
1SG-NOM market go-1SG.M be.PRS.1SG
'I go to the market'.
- /ʊəh-Ø ʊdʰər kʰəʃi hɛ/
3SG-NOM there stand-3SG.F be.PRS.3SG
'She stands there'
- /ɾɑmʊ-Ø kəl nəhĩ əjɡɑ/
'3SG-NOM tomorrow NEG. be.FUT.3SG.M
'Ramu will not come tomorrow'

ii) Accusative Case

Accusative case is the case found in nominative-accusative languages that marks certain syntactic functions, usually the direct objects of the verbs. In Hindi accusative case is sometimes unmarked (*/Ø/*) and sometimes marked by (*/-ko/*) as in the following instances:

- /mɛ roʃi-Ø kʰɑ-tɑ hũ/
1SG bread-ACC eat-IPFV.1SG.M be.PRS.1SG
'I eat bread'
- /ʊəh-Ø ciʃiɑ-Ø dekʰ-ti hɛ/
3SG-NOM bird-ACC see-IPFV.3SG.F be.PRS.3SG
'She sees the bird'
- /ʊəh bəʃɑr mē cor-ko pəkʈɑ tʰɑ/
3SG market LOC thief-ACC catch be.PST.3SG.M
'He caught the thief in market.'

iii) Instrumental Case

Instrumental case is used to denote the instrument with which the action is performed. It indicates the referent of the noun. Instrumental case marker is realized as */-se/* in Hindi. Following sentences will exemplify this:

- /mere kələm-se lɪk^h-o/
1SG.GEN pen-INS write-IMP.
'Write with my pen'
- /kēci-se bal-Ø kaṭe ʃate hɛ/
scissors-INS hair-ACC cut.PFV. be.PRS
'The hair is cut with scissors.'
- /ram-ne mere kələm-se ciṭṭhi-Ø lɪk^hi/
ram-ERG. 1SG.GEN pen-INS letter-ACC write.PFV.3SG.F
'Ram wrote the letter with my pen.'

iv) Dative Case

The dative case designates the indirect object of a transitive verb. Nouns having the role of recipient (as of things given), beneficiary of an action, or possessor of an item are datives. The context plays a crucial factor in differentiating between dative and accusative. In Hindi, the dative case is also marked by **/-ko/** as in the following examples:

- /sərkār-Ø gəribō-ko pəsa-Ø deti hɛ/
'Government-NOM poor-PL-DAT money-ACC give be.PRS.3SG
'The Government gives money to the poor'
- /ram-ne ʃjam-ko jəh kitab-Ø dɪya/
ram-ERG shyam-DAT this book-ACC give.PST.3SG
'Ram gave this book to Shyam'
- /sita-ne məhmanō-ko k^hana--Ø pərosa/
sita-ERG guest-PL-DAT food-ACC. serve-PFV.3SG
'Sita served the food to the guests'

v) Ablative Case

Ablative case is a case that expresses movement of the subject or the object from one place to another either at the spatial plane or at the temporal plane. In Hindi language ablative case marker is **/-se/** as shown in the following examples:

- /bācce-ne peṭ-se p^hāl--Ø toṭa/
child.3SG-ERG tree-ABL fruit-ACC pluck.PFV.3SG
'The child plucked the fruit from the tree'
- /peṭ-se pəṭt-e gɪṭ-te hɛ/
tree-ABL leaf-ACC pick-ACC be.PRS

tree-ABL leaf-PL fall-IPFV be.PRS.3PL
 'The leaves fall from the tree'

- /vəh me-re kʰɪʈki-se gɪr gəja /
 3SG 1SG.GEN window-ABL fall-PST
 'He fell down from my window'

vi) Genitive Case:

Genitive case expresses the meaning of belonging to or possession of something by the subject. In Hindi the genitive case is marked by */-ra/* or */-ri/* (for 1st, 2nd person), */-re/* or */-ri/* (for 1st, 2nd person), */-ka/* or */-ke/* or */-ki/* (for 3rd person). The markers of the case vary depending upon the gender and number of the object that belongs to the marked nouns.

- /me-**ra** bəcca-Ø/
 1.SG.GEN.M child-SG.
 'My child'
- /me-**re** bəcc-e/
 1.SG.GEN.M child-PL.
 'My children'
- /təmhə-**ra** ɡʰəɾ/
 2. SG.GEN.M house-SG.
 'Your house'
- /təmhə-**ri** kɪtab/
 2. SG.GEN.F book-SG.
 'Your book'
- /təmhə-**re** haʈʰ-ō/
 2.PL.GEN.M hand-PL.
 'Your hands'
- /us-**ka** caku/
 3SG.GEN.M knife-SG.
 'His knife'
- /un-**ke** ɡʰəɾ-ō/
 3.PL.GEN.M house-PL.
 'Their houses'

vii) Locative Case

Locative case is a case that expresses location at the referent of the noun it marks. The location of the subject or object is expressed by the locative case markers or postpositions. In Hindi, the locative case is realized as shown in the following examples:

- /velog iskol--Ø ʃate hẽ/
3.PL school-LOC go- IPFV be.PRS.3PL
'They go to school'
- /mere bæcc-e iskol-mẽ hẽ/
1SG.Gen child-PL school-LOC be.PRS.3PL
'My children are in the school'
- /tota peṛ pər hɛ/
parrot tree LOC be-PRS.3SG
'The parrot is on the tree'

viii) Ergativity

An ergative language is a language that treats the subject of an intransitive verb like the object of a transitive verb, but treats the agent of a transitive verb differently. Hindi is neither strictly ergative nor strictly accusative (i.e. a language that marks the objects of transitive verbs, distinguishing them from the subject of both intransitive and transitive verbs). Hindi exhibits 'split-ergativity' i.e. the context determines whether Hindi will exhibit 'ergative alignment' or 'accusative alignment'. In Hindi, sometimes a verb agrees with its object, not with its subject. This phenomenon is sometimes called 'ergativity'.

In Hindi, when a verb is transitive and perfective/perfect, it generally exhibits ergative alignment. This means in such contexts transitive verbs agree with the object, not the agent. In other words, when a verb is transitive and perfective/perfect, the agent of the transitive verb is in the oblique case (i.e. any noun case except the nominative case) and followed by the postposition /ne/, and the verb agrees with the object in person, number and gender. The post position /ne/ blocks the agent; thus, the verb cannot agree with the subject (agent), rather it agrees with the object. This phenomenon can be explained with the help of the following examples:

- /ram-ne mere kələm-se ciṭṭi-Ø likʰi/
ram-ERG 1SG.GEN pen-INS letter-ACC write.PFV.3SG
'Ram wrote the letter with my pen'
- /sita-ne mehmanõ-ko kʰana--Ø pərosa/
Sita-ERG guest-ACC food--Ø eat.PFV.3SG
'Sita ate the guest's food'

sita-ERG guest-PL-DAT food-ACC. serve-PFV.3SG
 ‘Sita served the food to the guests’

In the first example, although the agent /ram/ ‘Ram’ is masculine, the verb /likʰi/ ‘wrote’ is feminine, since the object /cɪʈʰi/ ‘letter’ is feminine. On the contrary. In the second example, although the agent /sita/ ‘Sita’ is feminine, the verb /pərosa/ ‘served’ is masculine, since the object /kʰand/ ‘food’ is masculine.

Another example can be given for a detailed understanding of this phenomenon i.e.

- /ap-ne kja-Ø kʰaja/
 2SG-ERG what-ACC eat.PFV.2SG
 ‘What have you eaten’

Here, /kʰaja/ ‘have eaten’ is a transitive and perfective verb. Therefore, the agent /ap/ ‘you’ is followed by the proposition /ne/. Words that have do not have any gender such as, /kja/ ‘what’, for the sake of agreement are treated as masculine. Thus, it takes a masculine verb /kʰaja/.

4.3.3. Pronoun

A pronoun is a word class or a part of speech which can substitute a single noun or a noun phrase. It can also take number, gender and case markers like the noun. But the functional difference between a noun and a pronoun is that the pronoun cannot take an determiner and pronoun can be used in all persons whereas a noun always refers to the third person. Hindi has following types of pronouns:

- i) Personal Pronoun
- ii) Demonstrative Pronoun
- iii) Reflexive Pronoun
- iv) Relative Pronoun
- v) Interrogative Pronoun
- vi) Indefinite Pronoun

i) Personal Pronoun

A personal pronoun refers to a specific person or thing and changes its form to indicate person, number, gender and case. The personal pronoun system in Hindi distinguishes for two numbers and three persons.

Person	Singular		Plural	
First Person	/mɛ/	‘I’	/həm/	‘we’
Second Person	/təm/	‘you’	/təmlɔg/	‘you (PL)’
Third Person	/vəh/	‘he/she’	/ve/	‘they’

Personal pronoun changes its form for third person in ergative constructions

Person	Singular		Plural	
Third Person	/ʊs-ne/	‘he/she’	/ʊnlogō-ne/	‘they’

ii) Demonstrative Pronoun

Demonstrative Pronouns are deictic words that indicate which entities a speaker refers to and distinguish those entities from others. The demonstrative pronouns either of proximate or remote types is realized in two numbers that is singular and plural which are shown below. The collected data illustrates the fact that Hindi language has two kinds of demonstrative pronouns-remote and proximate.

Pronouns	Proximate		Remote	
Singular	/jəh/	‘this’	/vəh/	‘that’
Plural	/je/, /jesəb/	‘these’	/ve/, /vesəb/	‘those’

Use in sentences:

Proximate Singular /jəh kəhəni əccʰi hɛ/
PROX.SG story good be.PRS.3SG
‘This story is good’

Proximate Plural /je kəhəni-ā əccʰi hẽ/
PROX.PL story-PL good be.PRS.3PL
‘These stories are good.’

Remote Singular /vəh ləɽki bəhəri hɛ/
REM.SG girl deaf be.PRS.3SG
‘That girl is deaf.’

Remote Plural /ve ləɽki-ā səndər hẽ/
REM.PL girl-PL beautiful be.PRS.3PL
‘Those girls are beautiful.’

iii) Reflexive Pronoun

A reflexive pronoun is a pronoun that is preceded by the noun, adjective, adverb or pronoun to which it refers (its antecedent) within the same clause. A reflexive pronoun is an anaphor that must be bound by its antecedent in its local domain. In Hindi language, reflexive pronouns are:

Reflexive Pronoun

/mẽ kʰɔd/	‘myself’
/həm kʰɔd/	‘ourselves’
/tɔm kʰɔd/	‘yourself’
/vəh kʰɔd/	‘himself’

iv) Relative Pronoun

The pronouns that introduce a relative clause which refers to some antecedent are called as relative pronoun. In Hindi, relative pronouns found are as follows;

Relative Pronoun

/jisse/	‘whom’
/jo/	‘who’
/jiski/	‘whose’
/jəhā/	‘where’

In Hindi, relative pronouns are realized in the following ways:

- /jəh vəhi admi hɛ jisse kəl mẽ mɪlɑ tʰɑ/
PROX.SG COREL man be REL tomorrow 1SG meet be.PST
‘This is the man whom i met yesterday.’
- /jəh vəhi jəgəh hɛ jəhā gɑj cərti hẽ/
REM.SG COREL place be REL cow-PL graze be.PRS
‘That is the place where the cows graze.’

v) Interrogative Pronoun

An interrogative pronoun is a function word for the item enquired in an information statement. Interrogative are also called ‘wh’-words in English.

Interrogative Pronoun

/kja/	‘what’
/kəb/	‘when’
/kɪdʰəɾ/	‘where’
/kjũ/	‘why’
/kɔon/	‘who’
/kɪska/, /kɪski/	‘whose’

In Hindi, it is realized as in the following examples:

- /təm̐hara nam kja hɛ/
2SG.GEN name what be.PRS
'What is your name?'
- /təm̐ kjũ ja rəhe ho/
2SG why go PROG be.OPT
'Why are you going?'

vi) Indefinite Pronoun

The pronouns which are used to denote some non-definite person or thing instead of definite person or thing are called Indefinite pronouns.

Indefinite Pronoun

/koibʰi/	'anybody'
/koi nəhi/	'nobody'
/hər koi/	'everyone'
/səb kɔ̃ʰ/	'everything'
/səb/	'all'

Use in Sentences

- /jəh kam koi.bʰi kər səktə hɛ/
PROX.SG work anybody do MOD be.PRS.3SG
'Anybody can do this work.'
- /jəh kam koi nəhi kər səktə hɛ/
PROX.SG work anybody NEG do MOD be.PRS.3SG
'Nobody can do this work.'

4.3.4. Person

Person is a grammatical category, used in the classification of pronouns, possessive determiners and verb forms, according to whether they indicate the speaker (first person), the addressee (second person) or a third party (third person). They are distinguished in all the tenses and moods and are also in different concordial relationship with the verb. The agreement marking on the verb and the auxiliary together gives information about Person, Number and Gender; it is not possible to distinguish each of them separately as all of this three information are embedded together. Context plays a crucial role in their identification. Example:

Person	Singular		Plural	
First Person	/mẽ/	‘I’	/həm/	‘we’
Second Person	/təm/	‘you’	/təmlɔg/	‘you (PL)’
Third Person	/vəh/	‘he/she’	/ve/	‘they’

First Person

Present tense markers for the first person singular and plural number are /-a hũ/ and /-e hẽ/.

First Persons	Sentence	
Singular	/mẽ (I) ʃat-a hũ (go)/	‘I go’
Plural	/həm (we) ʃat-e hẽ (go)/	‘we go’

Past tense markers for the first person singular and plural number are /-a t^ha/ and /-e t^he/.

First Persons	Sentence	
Singular	/mẽ (I) gəj-a t ^h a (went)/	‘I went’
Plural	/həm (we) gəj-e t ^h e (went)/	‘we went’

Future tense markers for the first person singular and plural number are /-uŋga/ and /-eŋge/.

First Persons	Sentence	
Singular	/mẽ (I) ʃa-uŋga (will go)/	‘I will go’
Plural	/həm (we) ʃa-eŋge (will go)/	‘we will go’

Second Person

Present tense marker for the second person singular and plural number is /-e ho/.

Second Persons	Sentence	
Singular	/təm (you (SG)) ʃat-e ho (go)/	‘you (SG) go’
Plural	/təmlɔg (you (PL)) ʃat-e ho (go)/	‘you (PL) go’

Past tense marker for the second person singular and plural number is /-e t^he/.

Second Persons	Sentence	
Singular	/təm (you (SG)) gəj-e t ^h e (go)/	‘you (SG) went’
Plural	/təmlɔg (you (PL)) gəj-e t ^h e (go)/	‘you (PL) went’

Future tense markers for the second person singular and plural number is /-o ge/.

Second Persons	Sentence	
Singular	/təm (you (SG)) ʃa-oge (go)/	‘you (SG) will go’
Plural	/təmlog (you (PL)) ʃa-oge (go)/	‘you (PL) will go’

Third Person

Present tense markers for the Third person singular and plural number are /-a hẽ/, /-i hẽ/ & /-e hẽ/.

Third Persons	Sentence	
Singular	/vəh (he/she) ʃat-a/i hẽ (go)/	‘He/ She goes’
Plural	/ve (they) ʃat-e hẽ (go)/	‘They will go’

Past tense markers for the Third person singular and plural number are /-a t^ha/, /-i t^hi/ & /-e t^he/.

Third Persons	Sentence	
Singular	/vəh (he/she) gəj-a t ^h a/-i t ^h i (go)	‘He/She went’
Plural	/ve (they) gəj-e t ^h e (go)/	‘They went’

Future tense markers for the Third person singular and plural number are /-ga/, /-gi/ and /-eŋge/.

Third Persons	Sentence	
Singular	/vəh (He/She) ʃaj-ga/-gi (go)	‘He/She will go’
Plural	/ve (They) ʃaj-eŋge (go)/	‘They will go’

4.4. Adjectives

An adjective is a word that belongs to a class whose members modify nouns and pronouns. An adjective specifies the properties or attributes of a noun (or pronoun) referent. Adjectives are used to add more detail and description to a sentence and help to form a clear clearer image of the noun being described.

4.4.1 Variable and Non-Variable Adjectives

Adjectives can be classified as either (A) Variable or (B) Non-Variable, depending on whether they change their form based on the gender, number or case of the noun they describe.

(A) Variable Adjective

A variable adjective is an adjective that changes its form to agree with the gender, number or case of the noun or pronoun it modifies. For example:

ADJ. + NOUN		ADJ. + NOUN	
/c ^h oŋa bæcca/	‘small child (SG)’	/c ^h oŋe bæcce/	‘small children (PL)’

/ləmba ləŋka/	‘tall boy (M)’	/ləmbi ləŋki/	‘tall girl (F)’
/buŋ ^h a admi/	‘old man (M)’	/buŋi ɔŋət /	‘old woman (F)’

(B) Non-Variable Adjective

A non-variable adjective is an adjective that does not change its form based on the gender, number or case of the noun it describes.

ADJ. + NOUN		ADJ. + NOUN	
/gəɾəm k ^h ana/	‘hot food (M)’	/gəɾəm paɪni/	‘hot water (F)’
/lāl p ^h ul/	‘red flower (M)’	/lāl mɪŋgi/	‘red soil (F)’
/səndəɾ ləŋka/	‘handsome boy (M)’	/səndəɾ ləŋki/	‘beautiful girl (F)’

4.4.2 Basic and Derived Adjectives

(A) Basic Adjective

Basic Adjectives are those which are a word class by themselves and are not derived from any other word class. Basic Adjectives can be divided into two types; they are – i) Attributive Adjective and ii) Predicative Adjective.

i) Attributive Adjective

Attributive adjective is an adjective that describes or modifies noun and is usually placed before the noun it modifies; as shown in the following examples:

/c ^h oŋe bəccel/	‘small children’
/əcc ^h a ləŋka/	‘good boy’
/sundəɾ ləŋki/	‘beautiful girl’

ii) Predicative Adjective

Predicative adjective is an adjective that comes after the linking verb or the subject of the sentence that it describes.

/vəh ləŋki bəheɾi hɛl/	‘That girl is deaf’
/vɛ ləŋkiã səndəɾ hɛl/	‘Those girls are beautiful’
/vəh ləŋka ləmba hɛl/	‘That boy is tall’

(B) Derived Adjective

An adjective that contains more than one morpheme by means of its root taking one or more affixes is called a Derived Adjective. It refers to all those adjectives which are derived from any other word class such as, noun, verb etc.

i) Adjectives Derived from Nouns

Adjectives can be derived from nouns through suffixation. There are various suffixes which are added to noun to derive adjectives. In Hindi, formation of the derived adjectives from noun can be realized in the following ways:

- **By adding the suffix /-i/**

Noun		Suffix		Derived Adjective
/rog/	‘disease’	+ /-i/	= /rogi/	‘diseased’
/døk ^h /	‘sadness’	+ /-i/	= /døk ^h i/	‘sad’
/søk ^h /	‘happiness’	+ /-i/	= /søk ^h i/	‘happy’

- **By adding the suffix /-ik/**

Noun		Suffix		Derived Adjective
/nit/	‘ethics’	+ /-ik/	= /netik/	‘ethical’
/pəriʋar/	‘family’	+ /-ik/	= /pariʋarik/	‘familial’
/itihas/	‘history’	+ /-ik/	= /etihasik/	‘historical’

- **By adding the suffix /-it/**

Noun		Suffix		Derived Adjective
/moh/	‘delusion’	+ /-it/	= /mohit/	‘deluded’
/ənōman/	‘estimate’	+ /-it/	= /ənōmanit/	‘estimated’
/nijəm/	‘rule’	+ /-it/	= /nijəmit/	‘regular’

- **By adding the suffix /-a/**

Noun		Suffix		Derived Adjective
/pjar/	‘love’	+ /-a/	= /pjara/	‘lovely’
/pjas/	‘thirst’	+ /-a/	= /pjasā/	‘thirsty’
/b ^h uk ^h /	‘hunger’	+ /-a/	= /b ^h uk ^h a/	‘hungry’

- By adding the suffix /-ij/

Noun		Suffix	Derived Adjective
/bʰarət/	‘India’	+ /-iə/	= /bʰartəij/ ‘Indian’
/rɑʃʈrə/	‘nation’	+ /-iə/	= /rɑʃʈriə/ ‘national’
/ʃatɪ/	‘race’	+ /-iə/	= /ʃatiə/ ‘racial’

- By adding the suffix /-lu/

Noun		Suffix	Derived Adjective
/dəjɑ/	‘compassion’	+ /-lu/	= /dəjɑlu/ ‘compassionate’
/krɪpɑ/	‘kindness’	+ /-lu/	= /krɪpɑlu/ ‘kind’
/ʃʰəɡɾɑ/	‘quarrel’	+ /-lu/	= /ʃʰəɡɾɑlu/ ‘quarrelsome’

- By adding the suffix /-van/

Noun		Suffix	Derived Adjective
/bəl/	‘strength’	+ /-van/	= /bəlvan/ ‘strong’
/dʰən/	‘wealth’	+ /-van/	= /dʰənvɑn/ ‘wealthy’

- By adding the suffix /-man/

Noun		Suffix	Derived Adjective
/buddʱɪ/	‘intelligence’	+ /-man/	= /bʊddʱɪman/ ‘intelligent’
/ʃəktɪ/	‘power’	+ /-man/	= /ʃəktɪman/ ‘wealthy’

ii) Adjectives Derived from Verbs

Adjectives can be derived from verbs also through suffixation. There are various suffixes which are added to the verb to derive adjectives and that is why sometimes they are called ‘verbal adjectives’. These verbal adjectives are used to describe the action or state of being of a person or an object and they agree in the gender and number with the nouns that they modify. In Hindi, formation of the derived adjectives from noun can be realized in the following ways:

- **By adding the suffix ‘/-ta/-ti/ or /-te/’**

Suffix ‘/-ta/ or /-ti/’ is added to verb base in order to form verbal adjectives in the progressive aspect. In such construction, /həʌ/, /həi/ or /həe/ is optional but usually added after the adjectives. For masculine singular subjects /-ta/ is added while /-ti/ is used for feminine singular subjects and for plural subjects /-te/ is added to the verb stem.

Verb		Suffix		Derived Adjective
/bʰɔkna/	‘to bark’	+ /-ta/	= /bʰɔk-ta/ (həʌ)	‘barking’
/cəlna/	‘to move’	+ /-ti/	= /cəl-ti/ (həi)	‘moving’
/gɪrna/	‘to fall’	+ /-te/	= /gɪr-te/ (həe)	‘falling’

- **By adding the suffix ‘/-a/-i/ or /-e/’**

Suffix ‘/-a/ or /-i/’ is added to verb base in order to form verbal adjectives in the perfective aspect. In such construction, /həʌ/, /həi/ or /həe/ is optional but usually added after the adjectives. For masculine singular subjects /-a/ is added while /-i/ is used for feminine singular subjects and for plural subjects /-e/ is added to the verb stem.

Verb		Suffix		Derived Adjective
/tʊtʌna/	‘to be broken’	+ /-a/	= /tʊt-a/ (həʌ)	‘broken’
/likhna/	‘to write’	+ /-i/	= /likʰ-i/ (həi)	‘written’
/cʰəpnə/	‘to get printed’	+ /-e/	= /cʰəp-e/ (həe)	‘printed’

4.4.3 Quantitative, Qualitative and Demonstrative Adjectives

(i) Quantitative Adjective

Quantitative adjective is a type of adjective that indicates the quantity, amount or number of something. These adjectives are used to describe the size, quantity or number of a noun in a sentence. Examples of quantitative adjectives in Hindi language are as follows:

Quantitative Adjective		Examples in Usage	
/tʰoɽa/	‘little’	/tʰoɽa pani/	‘little water’
/do/	‘two’	/do billiā/	‘two cats’
/pəhəla/	‘first’	/pəhəla gana/	‘first song’

(ii) Qualitative Adjective

Qualitative adjective is a type of adjective that describes the quality or characteristic of a noun or pronoun. It is used to describe the nature, appearance, shape, size, colour, taste/smell etc. of something. Examples of qualitative adjectives in Hindi language are as follows:

Qualitative Adjective		Examples in Usage	
/əcc ^h ɑ/	‘good’	/əcc ^h ɑ ləṭkɑ/	‘good boy’
/moṭɑ/	‘fat’	/ɑdmi/	‘fat man’
/mɔləjəm/	‘soft’	/mɔləjəm kəpṭɑ/	‘soft cloth’
/lɑl/	‘red’	/lɑl p ^h ul/	‘red flower’
/miṭ ^h ɑ/	‘sweet’	/miṭ ^h ɑ am/	‘sweet mango’

(iii) Demonstrative Adjective

Demonstrative adjective is a type of adjective that is used to indicate or point out a specific noun in a sentence. When pronominal forms are used as an adjective to demonstrate the nouns, they are called Demonstrative Adjectives.

Demonstrative Adjective		Examples in Usage	
/jəh/	‘this’	/jəh kɪtɑb/	‘this book’
/vəh/	‘that’	/vəh pɐṭ/	‘that tree’
/je/	‘these’	/je ləṭke/	‘these boys’
/ve/	‘those’	/ve ləṭkiā/	‘those boys’

4.4.4. Numerals

Numerals are those words or symbols that are used to represent number or quantities. They are used to count, measure and identify quantities of things, people or events. Numerals can be classified as – Cardinal Numbers, Ordinal Numbers and Fractional Numbers. Hindi has a decimal number system where the numbers are represented with the base of ‘ten’.

- **Cardinal Numbers**

Cardinal numbers are that type of numerals that are used to represent a specific quantity or number of things, people or events. Example of Cardinal numbers of Hindi are as follows:

Cardinal Number in Hindi		Cardinal Number in Hindi	
/ek/	‘one’	/ʋntis/	‘twenty-nine’
/do/	‘two’	/ekəttis/	‘thirty-one’
/tin/	‘three’	/pētis /	‘thirty-five’
/car/	‘four’	/ʋntalis/	‘thirty-nine’
/pāc/	‘five’	/ektalis/	‘forty-one’
/c ^h əh/	‘six’	/bjalis/	‘forty-two’
/sat/	‘seven’	/pētalis/	‘forty-five’
/aṭ ^h /	‘eight’	/pəcpən/	‘fifty-five’
/no/	‘nine’	/eksəṭ ^h /	‘sixty-one’

/dəs/	‘ten’	/pēsəṭʰ/	‘sixty-five’
/egjarəh/	‘eleven’	/ənhəttər/	‘sixty-nine’
/barəh/	‘twelve’	/ekhəttər/	‘seventy-one’
/terəh/	‘thirteen’	/pəchəttər/	‘seventy-five’
/cəodəh/	‘fourteen’	/ənnasi/	‘seventy-nine’
/pəndrəh/	‘fifteen’	/ekkjsasi/	‘eighty-one’
/soləh/	‘sixteen’	/pəcasi/	‘eighty-five’
/sətrəh/	‘seventeen’	/ekkjanve/	‘ninety-one’
/əṭʰarəh/	‘eighteen’	/pəncanve/	‘ninety-five’
/ənnis/	‘nineteen’	/ninnanve/	‘ninety-nine’
/bis/	‘twenty’	/sə/	‘hundred’
/ikkis/	‘twenty-one’	/tinsə/	‘three hundred’
/pəccis/	‘twenty-five’	/həʃar/	‘thousand’

- **Ordinal Numbers**

Ordinal numbers are that type of numerals that are used to indicate the position or order of an object or event in a sequence. Example of Ordinal numbers of Hindi are as follows:

Ordinal Number in Hindi

/pəhela/	‘first’
/dusra/	‘second’
/tisra/	‘third’

- **Fractional Numbers**

Fractional numbers, also known as fractions are that type of numerals which are used represent parts of a whole or a quantity that is not a whole number. Example of fractional numbers of Hindi are as follows:

Fractional Number

/pao/	‘quarter’
/adʰa/	‘half’
/dʰai/	‘two and half’

Formation of Higher Numerals

Higher numerals are formed by adding allomorphs of numerical units (1-9) to the allomorphs of base unit.

/ek/ ‘one’ + /-ah-rəh/ ‘decimal marker’ = /egjarəh/ ‘eleven’

/pāc/	‘five’	+	/-ah-rəh/	‘decimal marker’	=	/pəndrəh/	‘fifteen’
/ek/	‘one’	+	/bis/	‘twenty’	=	/ikkis/	‘twenty-one’
/ən/	‘one less than’	+	/bis/	‘twenty’	=	/ənnis/	‘nineteen’
/ek/	‘one’	+	/tis/	‘thirty’	=	/ekəttis/	‘thirty-one’
/pāc/	‘five’	+	/calis/	‘forty’	=	/pētalis/	‘forty-five’
/c ^h əh/	‘six’	+	/saṭ ^h /	‘sixty’	=	/eksəṭ ^h /	‘sixty-one’
/ən/	‘one less than’	+	/səttər/	‘seventy’	=	/ənhəttər/	‘sixty-nine’
/ek/	‘one’	+	/səttər/	‘seventy’	=	/ekhəttər/	‘seventy-one’
/tin/	‘three’	+	/sə/	‘hundred’	=	/tinsə/	‘three hundred’
/pāc/	‘five’	+	/sə/	‘hundred’	=	/pācsə/	‘five hundred’

4.5. Verb Morphology

Verb Morphology deals with the forms of verbs and their declensional/ inflectional pattern in association with Tense, Aspect, Mood, etc. Verbs in Hindi can be of different type, depending upon the nature and form of the verbs. Hindi verb in terms of complexity can be divided into two i.e. basic verb stem and complex verb which further can be divided into several sub groups such as conjunct and compound verb. Hindi verbs in terms of function may be of helping verb or main verb; in terms of agreement feature Hindi verbs are divided into two that is finite and nonfinite verbs and in terms of uses it may of several types. These all we can see under following headings:

4.5.1. Types of Verbs

In terms of uses verbs can be of several types –

- **Physical Activity Verbs**

/piṭna/	‘to beat (somebody)’
/bāḍ ^h na/	‘to bind’
/kaṭna/	‘to bite’

- **Instrument Verbs**

/p ^h aṭna/	‘split (wood)’
/gəḍḍ ^h a k ^h odna/	‘to bind’
/ləkṭi kaṭna/	‘to chop’

- **Verbs of Fighting**

/mar ^h na/	‘to kill’
/ləṭai kār ^h na/	‘to fight (with each other)’

/ʃ^həɣɾa kərna/ ‘to quarrel’

- **Music Verbs**

/naɕna/ ‘to dance’

/bəʃana/ ‘to play (musical instrument)’

/gana gana/ ‘to sing

- **Motion Verbs**

/ɔʈ^hna/ ‘to lift up’

/hɪlana/ ‘to move (stir)’

/həʈana/ ‘to move (an object)’

- **Occupational Verbs**

/k^het ʃotna/ ‘to cultivate (tend crop)’

/ɪlaʃ kərna/ ‘to cure (an illness)’

/baɪ kaʈna/ ‘to cut (hair)’

- **Culinary Verbs**

/b^həɳna/ ‘to fry (deep, shallow)’

/pɪsna/ ‘to grind’

/mɪlana/ ‘to mix’

- **Communication Verbs**

/puc^hna/ ‘to ask (to question)’

/bɔɪlana/ ‘to call’

/ɔʈtətəɾ dena/ ‘to answer’

- **Non-Motion Verbs**

/rɛhɛna/ ‘to dwell’

/məɾ ʃana/ ‘to die’

/cəɳna/ ‘to choose (out of several)’

- **Inchoative Verbs**

/pəkna/ ‘to ripe (as a fruit)’

/sɪkɔʈna/ ‘to shrink’

/ɔɣna/ ‘to sprout’

- **Cognitive Verbs**

/səpna dek ^h na/	‘to dream’
/ʃanna/	‘to know’
/sik ^h na/	‘to learn’

- **Sensory Verbs**

/dek ^h na/	‘to see’
/sona/	‘to sleep’
/c ^h ikna/	‘to learn’

- **Emotive Verbs**

/sətana/	‘to annoy’
/cillana/	‘to scream’
/napəsənd kərna/	‘to dislike’

4.5.2. Classification of Verbs

Classification of verbs refers to the categorization of verbs based on their use, function, syntactic and semantic properties etc. There are several ways to classify verbs:

(I) Verbs in terms of Function

Verbs in term of function can be divided into two i.e. Main Verbs (MV) and Auxiliary Verbs (AUX). Main verb is a type of verb which denotes an action, event or state in a sentence while Auxiliaries are a type of verb which helps to the main verb. Like most of the Indian languages Hindi Auxiliary too follows the main verb. The auxiliary verbs in Hindi are of two types i.e. Primary and Modals as in the followings examples:

- /kʊtta ʊd^hər k^həʈa hɐ/
dog there stand (MV) AUX
‘The dog is standing there.’
- /ʊəh əb^hib^hi a səkta hɐ/
3SG.M still come (MV) MOD AUX
‘He may still come.’

(II) Verbs in terms of Forms

In terms of form, verbs can be divided into two categories; they are – (A) Base Verbs, (B) Compound Verbs and (C) Conjoint Verbs.

(A) Base Verbs

Base verbs, also known as the base forms or infinitives, are the most basic form of a verb that usually appears in the dictionary. Base verbs can function as the main verb in a sentence. They can also be used in combination with auxiliary verbs to form various tenses and moods. Examples of base verbs from Hindi are as follows:

/hə̃sna/	‘to laugh’
/sona/	‘to sleep’
/dek ^h na/	‘to see’

(B) Compound Verbs

Compound Verb refers to a complex verb form that comprises of a ‘Main Verb’ as a ‘bare stem’ (krdant) and a secondary element called the ‘helping verb’ that bears the information of tense and agreement. This secondary element has been variously termed as explicator, operator, auxiliary, vector etc. In Hindi, these vectors constitute a small class of typically motion verbs like /ʃana/ ‘to go’, /beṭ^hna/ ‘to sit’, /dena/ ‘to give’, /lena/ ‘to take’ etc. (Bhat, R.N. 2002). Examples of compound verbs of Hindi are as follows:

Main Verb		Helping Verb		Compound Verb	
/le-na/	‘to take’	+ /ʃana/	‘to go’	= /le ʃana/	‘to take away’
/nikəl-na/	‘to get out’	+ /ana/	‘to come’	= /nikəl ana/	‘to come out’
/pəṭ ^h -na/	‘to read’	+ /lena/	‘to take’	= /pəṭ ^h lena/	‘to finish reading’
/cəl-na/	‘to walk’	+ /dena/	‘to give’	= /cəl dena/	‘to set off’
/kər-na/	‘to do’	+ /beṭ ^h na/	‘to sit’	= /kər beṭ ^h na/	‘to have done (something)’

(C) Conjunct Verbs

Conjunct Verb refers to a complex verb form that comprises of a ‘Noun’ or ‘Adjective’ and a verb that bears the information of tense and agreement (Bhat, R.N. 2002). Examples of compound verbs of Hindi are as follows:

Noun		Verb		Conjunct Verb	
/mərəmmət/	‘to repair’	+ /hona/	‘to be’	= /mərəmmət hona/	‘to get fixed’
/ʃor/	‘noise’	+ /kərna/	‘to do’	= /ʃor kərna/	‘to make noise’
/mədəd/	‘help’	+ /kərna/	‘to do’	= /mədəd kərna/	‘to help’
Adjective		Verb		Conjunct Verb	
/saf/	‘clean’	+ /kərna/	‘to do’	= /saf kərna/	‘to clean’

/tʰik/	‘correct’	+ /kərna/	‘to do’	=	/tʰik kərna/	‘to amend’
/kam/	‘less’	+ /kərna/	‘to do’	=	/kəm kərna/	‘to decrease’

(III) Verbs in terms of Transitivity

Transitivity is a grammatical term that refers to whether a verb requires an object or not. A transitive verb is a verb that requires an object to complete its meaning, while an intransitive verb does not require an object. In terms of transitivity, verbs can be divided into three categories; they are – (A) Intransitive Verbs, (B) Transitive Verbs and (C) Ditransitive Verbs.

(A) Intransitive Verbs

Intransitive verbs are those verbs that do not require any object to complete their meaning. Examples of Intransitive verbs of Hindi are as follows:

Intransitive Verb		Example in Sentences	
/ana/	‘to come’	/bacca jəhā ata hē/	‘The child comes here’
/jana/	‘to go’	/mē ghər jata hū/	‘I go home’

(B) Transitive Verbs

Transitive verbs are those verbs that require an object to complete their meaning. Examples of Intransitive verbs of Hindi are as follows:

Transitive Verb		Example in Sentences	
/kʰana/	‘to eat’	/mē roti kʰata hū/	‘I eat bread’
/dekʰna/	‘to see’	/vəh ciṛa dekʰta hē/	‘He sees the bird’

(C) Ditransitive Verbs

Ditransitive verbs are those verbs that require two objects i.e. a direct object and an indirect object. The direct object receives the action of the verb, while the indirect object indicates to or for whom the action is being performed. Examples of Ditransitive verbs of Hindi are as follows:

Transitive Verb		Example in Sentences	
/dena/	‘to give’	/ram ne fjamko kitab dija/	‘Ram gave the book to shyam’
/ṁdʰar dena/	‘to lend’	/ṁsne muṁhē kṁcʰ pṁse ṁdʰar dije/	‘He lends me some money’

(IV) Verbs in terms of Finiteness

Finiteness is a grammatical term that refers to whether a verb form shows tense, aspect and mood agreement with a subject. In terms of finiteness verbs are divided into two categories; they are (A) Finite Verbs and (B) Non-Finite Verbs.

(A) Finite Verb

A finite verb is a verb form that occurs in an independent clause and expresses a specific action, state or condition which is performed or undergone by the subject of the sentence. Having the verb roots as the base form, both Finite and Non-finite verbs are realised in Hindi. Finite verbs convey several grammatical categories that includes (i) Tense, (ii) Aspect and (iii) Mood. In Hindi, finite verbs are formed by adding different suffixes to the verb roots/stems. These suffixes are the markers for different tense, aspect and mood of the verbs and they maintain an agreement with the person, number and gender of the subject or object of a sentence.

(i) Tense

Tense is a grammatical category that refers to the time at which an action has been taken place or a state of being has existed. Each tense is indicated by specific verb forms which changes according to the person, number and gender of the subject and the time frame of the action. Hindi has three tenses: Present, Past and Future. Different verb forms are available for different person, number and gender in different tenses. Formation of the verb /jāna/ 'to go' for different number, gender and person in three different tenses have been shown below:

a. Present Tense

A tense that expresses an action that is currently going on or habitually performed or a state that currently or generally exists is called Present Tense. In Hindi present tense according to different person, number and gender is realized in the following ways:

Formation of Present Indefinite Tense in Hindi

Person Pronominal form		Verb + Tense-png marker + Aux.	
1SG	/mẽ/	/ja+ta+hũ/	'I go'
1PL	/həm/	/ja+te+hẽ/	'We go'
2SG	/təm/	/ja+te+ho/	'You (SG) go'
2PL	/təmləg/	/ja+te+ho/	'You (PL) go'
3SG	/vəh/	/ja+ta+hẽ/	'He goes'
3PL	/ve/	/ja+te+hẽ/	'They go'

Example in Sentences:

Person	Sentences	
1 st Person Singular	/mẽ bəzar ʃata hũ/	‘I go to the market’
1 st Person Plural	/həm bəzar ʃate hẽ/	‘We go to the market’
2 nd Person Singular	/təm bəzar ʃate ho/	‘You (SG) go to the market’
2 nd Person Plural	/təmlog bəzar ʃate ho/	‘You (PL) go to the market’
3 rd Person Singular	/vəh bəzar ʃata hẽ/	‘He goes to the market’
3 rd Person Plural	/ve bəzar ʃate hẽ/	‘They go to the market’

b. Past Tense

A tense that expresses an action that has happened or a state that previously existed is called Past Tense. In Hindi past tense according to different person, number and gender is realized in the following ways:

Formation of Past Indefinite Tense

Person	Pronominal form	Verb + Tense-png marker + Aux.	
1SG	/mẽ/	/gə+ja+t ^h a/	‘I went’
1PL	/həm/	/gə+je+t ^h e/	‘We went’
2SG	/təm/	/gə+je+t ^h e/	‘You (SG) went’
2PL	/təmlog/	/gə+je+t ^h e/	‘You (PL) went’
3SG	/vəh/	/gə+ji+t ^h i/	‘She went’
3PL	/ve/	/gə+je+t ^h e/	‘They went’

Example in Sentences:

Person	Sentences	
1 st Person Singular	/mẽ bəzar gəja t ^h a /	‘I went to the market’
1 st Person Plural	/həm bəzar gəje t ^h e/	‘We went to the market’
2 nd Person Singular	/təm bəzar gəje t ^h e/	‘You (SG) went to the market’
2 nd Person Plural	/təmlog bəzar gəje t ^h e/	‘You (PL) went to the market’
3 rd Person Singular	/vəh bəzar gəji t ^h i/	‘She went to the market’
3 rd Person Plural	/ve bəzar gəje t ^h e/	‘They went to the market’

c. Future Tense

A tense that expresses an action that has not yet happened or a state that does not yet exist is called Future Tense. In Hindi future tense according to different person, number and gender is realized in the following ways:

Formation of Future Indefinite Tense

Person	Pronominal form	Verb + png + Tense marker	
1SG	/mẽ/	/ʃa+ʋŋ+ga/	'I will go'
1PL	/həm/	/ʃa+eŋ+ge/	'We will go'
2SG	/təm/	/ʃa+o+ge/	'You (SG) will go'
2PL	/təmlɔg/	/ʃa+o+ge/	'You (PL) will go'
3SG	/ʋəh/	/ʃa+e+ga/	'He will go'
3PL	/ʋe/	/ʃa+eŋ+ge/	'They will go'

Example in Sentences:

Person	Sentences	
1 st Person Singular	/mẽ bəzar ʃaʋŋga/	'I will go to the market'
1 st Person Plural	/həm bəzar ʃajeŋge/	'We will go to the market'
2 nd Person Singular	/təm bəzar ʃaoge/	'You (SG) will go to the market'
2 nd Person Plural	/təmlɔg bəzar ʃaoge/	'You (PL) will go to the market'
3 rd Person Singular	/ʋəh bəzar ʃajga/	'She went to the market'
3 rd Person Plural	/ʋe bəzar ʃajeŋge/	'They will go to the market'

(ii) Aspect

Aspect is a grammatical category associated with verbs that expresses a temporal view of the event or state expressed by the verb. Aspectual information is related with duration, perfection, habituality etc. Hindi has three aspects interpreted in different tenses. These are – a. Progressive or Imperfective, b. Perfective and c. Habitual. Formation of the verb /ʃana/ 'to go' for different number, gender and person in three different aspects have been shown below:

a. Progressive or Imperfective Aspect

Progressive aspect is a grammatical aspect that describes an ongoing, continuous or repeated action that is not yet completed or is viewed as incomplete, regardless of whether it is happening in the present, past or future. In the progressive aspect the action is presented as a process, rather than a completed event; the focus is on the duration of the progress rather than

its completion. In Hindi, Progressive aspect is realized in all the three tenses and the auxiliary verbs carry the tense markers in the progressive aspect.

- **Present Progressive Aspect**

The present progressive aspect is a grammatical aspect that describes an ongoing, continuous or repeated action that is currently taking place in the present time and yet not completed or viewed as complete.

Formation of Present Progressive Aspect in Hindi

Person	Pronominal form	Verb + Aspect-png marker + Aux	
1SG	/mẽ/	/ʃa+rəha+hũ/	‘I am going’
1PL	/həm/	/ʃa+rəhe+hẽ/	‘We are going’
2SG	/təm/	/ʃa+rəhe+ho/	‘You (SG) are going’
2PL	/təmlɔg/	/ʃa+rəhe+ho/	‘You (PL) are going’
3SG	/vəh/	/ʃa+rəha+hɛ/	‘He is going’
3PL	/ve/	/ʃa+rəhe+hẽ/	‘They are going’

Example in Sentences:

Person	Sentences	
1 st Person Singular	/mẽ bəzar ʃa rəha hũ/	‘I am going to the market’
1 st Person Plural	/həm bəzar ʃa rəhe hẽ/	‘We are going to the market’
2 nd Person Singular	/təm bəzar ʃa rəhe ho/	‘You (SG) are going to the market’
2 nd Person Plural	/təmlɔg bəzar ʃa rəhe ho/	‘You (PL) are going to the market’
3 rd Person Singular	/vəh bəzar ʃa rəha hɛ/	‘He is going to the market’
3 rd Person Plural	/ve bəzar ʃa rəhe hẽ/	‘They are going to the market’

- **Past Progressive Aspect**

The past progressive aspect is a grammatical aspect that describes an ongoing, continuous or repeated action that was taking place in the past and was not completed yet or viewed as incomplete at a specific time in the past.

Formation of Past Progressive Aspect in Hindi

Person	Pronominal form	Verb + Aspect-png marker + Aux	
1SG	/mẽ/	/ʃa+rəha+t ^h a/	‘I was going’

1PL	/həm/	/ʃa+rəhe+ t ^h e/	‘We were going’
2SG	/təm/	/ʃa+rəhe+ t ^h e/	‘You (SG) were going’
2PL	/təmlog/	/ʃa+rəhe+ t ^h e/	‘You (PL) were going’
3SG	/vəh/	/ʃa+rəha+ t ^h a/	‘He was going’
3PL	/ve/	/ʃa+rəhe+ t ^h e/	‘They were going’

Example in Sentences:

Person	Sentences	
1 st Person Singular	/mẽ bəzar ʃa rəha t ^h a/	‘I was going to the market’
1 st Person Plural	/həm bəzar ʃa rəhe t ^h e/	‘We were going to the market’
2 nd Person Singular	/təm bəzar ʃa rəhe t ^h e/	‘You (SG) were going to the market’
2 nd Person Plural	/təmlog bəzar ʃa rəhe t ^h e/	‘You (PL) were going to the market’
3 rd Person Singular	/vəh bəzar ʃa rəha t ^h a/	‘He was going to the market’
3 rd Person Plural	/ve bəzar ʃa rəhe t ^h e/	‘They were going to the market’

• Future Progressive Aspect

The future progressive aspect is a grammatical aspect that describes an ongoing, continuous or repeated action that will be taking place in the future and will not yet be completed or viewed as incomplete at a specific time in the future.

Formation of Future Progressive Aspect

Person	Pronominal form	Verb + Aspect-png marker + Aux	
1SG	/mẽ/	/ʃa+rəha+hoʊŋga/	‘I shall be going’
1PL	/həm/	/ʃa+rəhe+honŋe/	‘We will be going’
2SG	/təm/	/ʃa+rəhe+hoge/	‘You (SG) will be going’
2PL	/təmlog/	/ʃa+rəhe+hoge/	‘You (PL) will be going’
3SG	/vəh/	/ʃa+rəhi+hogi/	‘She will be going’
3PL	/ve/	/ʃa+rəhe+honŋe/	‘They will be going’

Example in Sentences:

Person	Sentences	
1 st Person Singular	/mẽ bəzar ʃa rəha hoʊŋga /	‘I shall be going to the market’
1 st Person Plural	/həm bəzar ʃa rəhe honŋe/	‘We will be going to the market’

2 nd Person Singular	/təm bəzar ja rəhe hoge/	‘You (SG) will be going to the market’
2 nd Person Plural	/təmlog bəzar ja rəhe hoge/	‘You (PL) will be going to the market’
3 rd Person Singular	/vəh bəzar ja rəhi hogi/	‘He will be going to the market’
3 rd Person Plural	/ve bəzar ja rəhe honge/	‘They will be going to the market’

b. Perfective Aspect

The perfective aspect is a grammatical aspect that describes an action, viewed as completed. It indicates that the action has been completed at specific point of time. Perfective aspect can be realized in all the three tenses in Hindi. In Hindi, perfective aspect is realized in all the three tenses and the auxiliary verbs carry the tense markers in the perfective aspect.

c. Present Perfective Aspect

The present perfective aspect is a grammatical aspect that expresses the completion of an action which is just finished or was finished at some point of time in the past but is still relevant or connected to the present moment.

Formation of Present Perfective Aspect in Hindi

Person	Pronominal form	Verb + Aspect-png marker + Aux	
1SG	/mẽ/	/ja+cōka+hũ/	‘I have gone’
1PL	/həm/	/ja+cōke+hẽ/	‘We have gone’
2SG	/təm/	/ja+cōke+ho/	‘You (SG) have gone’
2PL	/təmlog/	/ja+cōke+ho/	‘You (PL) have gone’
3SG	/vəh/	/ja+cōka+hē/	‘He has gone’
3PL	/ve/	/ja+cōke+hẽ/	‘They have gone’

Example in Sentences:

Person	Sentences	
1 st Person Singular	/mẽ bəzar ja cōka hũ/	‘I have gone to the market’
1 st Person Plural	/həm bəzar ja cōke hẽ/	‘We have gone to the market’
2 nd Person Singular	/təm bəzar ja cōke ho/	‘You (SG) have gone to the market’
2 nd Person Plural	/təmlog bəzar ja cōke ho/	‘You (PL) have gone to the market’
3 rd Person Singular	/vəh bəzar ja cōka hē/	‘He has gone to the market’

3rd Person Plural /ʋe bəzar ʃa cəke hẽ/ ‘They have gone to the market’

d. Past Perfective Aspect

The present perfective aspect is a grammatical aspect that describes an action that was already done or completed in the past.

Formation of Past Perfective Aspect in Hindi

Person	Pronominal form	Verb + Aspect-png marker + Aux	
1SG	/mẽ/	/ʃa+cəka+t ^h a/	‘I had gone’
1PL	/həm/	/ʃa+cəke+t ^h e/	‘We had gone’
2SG	/təm/	/ʃa+cəke+t ^h e/	‘You (SG) had gone’
2PL	/təmlɔg/	/ʃa+cəke+t ^h e/	‘You (PL) had gone’
3SG	/ʋəh/	/ʃa+cəki+t ^h i/	‘She had gone’
3PL	/ʋe/	/ʃa+cəke+ t ^h e/	‘They had gone’

Example in Sentences:

Person	Sentences	
1 st Person Singular	/mẽ bəzar ʃa cəka t ^h a/	‘I had gone to the market’
1 st Person Plural	/həm bəzar ʃa cəke t ^h e/	‘We had gone to the market’
2 nd Person Singular	/təm bəzar ʃa cəke t ^h e/	‘You (SG) had gone to the market’
2 nd Person Plural	/təmlɔg bəzar ʃa cəke t ^h e/	‘You (PL) had gone to the market’
3 rd Person Singular	/ʋəh bəzar ʃa cəki t ^h i/	‘She had gone to the market’
3 rd Person Plural	/ʋe bəzar ʃa cəke t ^h e/	‘They had gone to the market’

• Future Perfective Aspect

The future perfective aspect is a grammatical aspect that describes an action that will be completed at some point in the future. It is used to indicate that an action will have been completed before a specific point or event in the future.

Formation of Future Perfective Aspect in Hindi

Person	Pronominal form	Verb + Aspect-png marker + Aux	
1SG	/mẽ/	/ʃa+cəka+hoɔŋga/	‘I will have gone’
1PL	/həm/	/ʃa+cəke+honge/	‘We will have gone’

2SG	/təm/	/ʃa+cəke+hoge/	‘You (SG) will have gone’
2PL	/təmlɔg/	/ʃa+cəke+hoge/	‘You (PL) will have gone’
3SG	/vəh/	/ʃa+cəka+hoga/	‘He will have gone’
3PL	/ve/	/ʃa+cəke+ honge/	‘They will have gone’

Example in Sentences:

Person	Sentences
1 st Person Singular	/mẽ bəzar ʃa cəka hoʒŋga/ ‘I will have gone to the market’
1 st Person Plural	/həm bəzar ʃa cəke honge/ ‘We will have gone to the market’
2 nd Person Singular	/təm bəzar ʃa cəke hoge/ ‘You (SG) will have gone to the market’
2 nd Person Plural	/təmlɔg bəzar ʃa cəke hoge/ ‘You (PL) will have gone to the market’
3 rd Person Singular	/vəh bəzar ʃa cəka hoga/ ‘He will have gone to the market’
3 rd Person Plural	/ve bəzar ʃa cəke honge/ ‘They will have gone to the market’

e. Habitual Aspect

Habitual aspect is a grammatical aspect that expresses an action or event as a repeated or customary occurrence. It indicates that the action or event being described is a habitual, customary, repeated action that occurs over an extended period of time. In Hindi, habitual aspect is expressed by forming habitual participle which is constructed by adding the suffix /-ta/ to the verb root and the participle form agrees with the gender and number of the subject of the sentence which is marked by the vowel the participle end sin. The auxiliary verbs of the sentence carry the tense markers in the habitual aspect. Examples are as follows:

- /surəʃ purəb dɪʃa mẽ ʊg-ta hɛ/
sun east direction LOC rise-HAB be.PRS.3SG
‘The sun rises in the east.’
- /həm roʃ gəj-ko duh-te hẽ/
1PL everyday cow milk-HAB be.PRS.1PL
‘We milk the cow’s everyday.’

However, in some cases Hindi ‘do’ verb /kərna/ is required to be added to the main verb to form a complex predicate in order to express the habitual aspect. For example, sometimes, /kərna/ ‘to do’ is added to the verbs like /ana/ ‘to come’, /ʃana/ ‘to go’ to form a complex predicate in order to convey the habitual aspect of the verb. In these cases, the habitual affix /-ta/ is added to the ‘do verb’ as in /qja kər-ta (hũ)/ ‘come (HAB.)’, /ʃqja kər-ti (hɛ)/ ‘go (HAB)’ etc. In Hindi, habitual aspect is realized in two tenses – Present and Past.

Present Habitual Aspect

The present habitual aspect is a grammatical aspect that is used to indicate actions or events that occur habitually or usually in the present time frame.

Formation of Present Habitual Aspect in Hindi

Person	Pronominal form	Verb + do+Aspect-png marker + Aux	
1SG	/mẽ/	/ʃajə+kəɾ-tə+hũ/	‘I go (HAB.)’
1PL	/həm/	/ʃajə+kəɾ-te+hẽ/	‘We go (HAB.)’
2SG	/təm/	/ʃajə+kəɾ-te+ho/	‘You (SG) go (HAB.)’
2PL	/təmlog/	/ʃajə+kəɾ-te+ho/	‘You (PL) go (HAB.)’
3SG	/ʊəh/	/ʃajə+kəɾ-tə+hɛ/	‘He goes (HAB.)’
3PL	/ʊe/	/ʃajə+kəɾ-te+hẽ/	‘They go (HAB.)’

Example in Sentences:

Person	Sentences	
1 st Person Singular	/mẽ bəzər ʃajə kəɾtə hũ/	‘I go (HAB.) to the market’
1 st Person Plural	/həm bəzər ʃajə kəɾte hẽ/	‘We go (HAB.) to the market’
2 nd Person Singular	/təm bəzər ʃajə kəɾte ho/	‘You (SG) go (HAB.) to the market’
2 nd Person Plural	/təmlog bəzər ʃajə kəɾte ho/	‘You (PL) go (HAB.) to the market’
3 rd Person Singular	/ʊəh bəzər ʃajə kəɾtə hɛ/	‘He goes (HAB.) to the market’
3 rd Person Plural	/ʊe bəzər ʃajə kəɾte hẽ/	‘They go (HAB.) to the market’

Past Habitual Aspect

The past habitual aspect is a grammatical aspect that is used to describe actions or events that were repeatedly or habitually performed in the past. It is used to convey a sense of customery or habitual behavior that occurred over a period of time.

Formation of Past Perfective Aspect

Person	Pronominal form	Verb + Aspect-png marker + Aux	
1SG	/mẽ/	/ʃajə+kəɾ-tə+t ^h a/	‘I used to go’
1PL	/həm/	/ʃajə+kəɾ-te+t ^h e/	‘We used to go’
2SG	/təm/	/ʃajə+kəɾ-te+t ^h e/	‘You (SG) used to go’
2PL	/təmlog/	/ʃajə+kəɾ-te+t ^h e/	‘You (PL) used to go’

3SG	/vəh/	/ʃaja+kər-ti+t ^{hi} /	‘She used to go’
3PL	/ve/	/ʃaja+kər-te+t ^{he} /	‘They used to go’

Example in Sentences:

Person	Sentences
1 st Person Singular	/mē bəzar ʃaja kərta t ^{ha} / ‘I used to go to the market’
1 st Person Plural	/həm bəzar ʃaja kərte t ^{he} / ‘We used to go to the market’
2 nd Person Singular	/təm bəzar ʃaja kərte t ^{he} / ‘You (SG) used to go to the market’
2 nd Person Plural	/təmləg bəzar ʃaja kərte t ^{he} / ‘You (PL) used to go to the market’
3 rd Person Singular	/vəh bəzar ʃaja kərta t ^{hi} / ‘She used to go to the market’
3 rd Person Plural	/ve bəzar ʃaja kərte t ^{he} / ‘They used to go to the market’

(iii) Mood

Mood refers to a grammatical category that expresses the speakers’ attitude towards the state or action described by the verb. It indicates the relationship between the action or state and reality as perceived by the speaker. Different moods of Hindi Language are as follows:

a. Indicative Mood

Indicative mood is used to state a fact, make a statement or to ask a question.

Example:	/surəʃ purəb dɪʃa mē ʊgta hē/	‘Sun rises in the East’
	/bəcə məʃ ^{he} dek ^{hte} hē/	‘The children see me’
	/təmhara nam kja hē/	‘What is your name?’

b. Imperative Mood

Imperative mood is used to express commands or to give advice or instructions.

Example:	/d ^{hi} rese bat kəro/	‘Speak slowly’
	/təmhə roz pəṛ ^{na} caḥije/	‘You should read regularly’
	/ṭebəl pər k ^h əṛe ho ʃao/	‘Stand on the table’

c. Subjunctive Mood

Subjunctive mood is used to express hypothetical situations, doubts or wishes.

Example:	/əgər g ^{ho} ṛe ke pəŋk ^h hote to ve uṛ ʃate/	‘If horses ha wings they woud have flown’
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/kɑʃ ki aʃ cʰəʃtʃi ho ʃaj/
/jəh ho səktə hɛ ki vəh kəl aje/

‘If only today would be a holiday’
‘It may be that he will come tomorrow’

d. Conditional Mood

Conditional mood is used to express a condition or hypothesis and its consequences.

Example: /əgər mē tʰik rəhuŋga to kəl auŋga/ ‘If I am well I will come tomorrow’
/əgər rel gaʃi der se ati to həmlɔg pəkəʃ lete/ ‘If the train is late we may catch it’

e. Obligatory Mood

Obligatory mood is used to express obligation or compulsion.

Example: /kɪsɪbʰi hal mē tumhe ana caɦije/ ‘Anyhow you must come’
/ʊs gʰoʃe ko beca ʃana caɦije/ ‘That horse has to be sold’

f. Optative Mood

Optative mood is used to express a wish or hope regarding a given action

Example: /dɪrɪgʰaju ho! / ‘May you live long!’
/iʃvər ap pər kɪpə kərē! / ‘May God bless you!’

(B) Non-Finite Verb

Non-finite verbs are those verb forms that do not indicate tense, number or gender and do not function as the main verb of a sentence. Instead, they are often used to modify other parts of sentence or to express actions that are incomplete or ongoing. Types of non-finite verb forms of Hindi are as follows:

(i) Gerund

Gerund is a non-finite verb form that is derived from a verb and functions as a noun in a sentence. Gerund can function as a subject of as well as an object of a verb. In Hindi, Gerunds are formed by adding /-na/ with the base form of the verb.

- Use of Gerund as a Subject:

/tərna sehət ke lije əcʰa hɛ/ ‘Swimming is good for health’

/dʊʊɾna ek æccʰi kəsɾət hæ/	‘Running is a good exercise’
/kʰelna svastʰ ke lɪje labʰdajək hæ/	‘Playing is useful for health’

- Use of Gerund as an Object:

/mɛ səŋɡit sunna pəsənd kərti hū/	‘I like listening to music’
/ɾam kɾiket kʰelna pəsənd kərti hæ/	‘Ram loves playing cricket’
/unhōne həme ɡana sɪkʰaja/	‘She taught us dancing’

Infinitive

Infinitive is a type of non-finite verb that expresses an action or state of being without reference to a particular state of being without reference to a particular tense, mood or subject. In Hindi, infinitives are formed by adding the suffix /-na/ to the base form of the verb.

Example:	/kər-na/	‘to do’
	/bol-na/	‘to speak’
	/kʰel-na/	‘to play’
	/mar-na/	‘to beat’
	/nac-na/	‘to dance’
	/cəl-na/	‘to walk’

In Hindi, oblique infinitives are also used just like an oblique noun. In that case, suffix /-ne/ is added to the base form of the verb as in, /kər-ne/ ‘to do’, /bol-ne/ ‘to speak’ etc. Oblique infinitives can be used with or without a post position.

- With postposition

/ve log kʰana kʰane ke lɪje ɡəɾ ɡəje tʰe/	‘They went home to eat food’
/ʊsko pəɾʰne ke lɪje cəʃma cahije hota hæ/	‘He needs glasses to read’
/mʊʃʰe kəpɾe kʰəridne ke lɪje pəse cahije/	‘I need money to buy clothes’

- Without postposition

/mʊʃʰe ʃane do/	‘Let me go’
/ve log həsne lage/	‘Those people began to laugh’
/ʊsko cɪʈʈʰi likʰne do/	‘Let him write the letter’

The oblique infinitive + form of /dena/ ‘to give’ is used to express ‘to allow/ to permit’ and the oblique infinitive + form of /lagna/ ‘seem’ is used to express ‘to begin to do something’

iii) Participle

Participle is a type of no-finite verb form that is used to modify nouns or pronouns in a sentence. Participles can be formed from verbs by adding suffixes and can function as adjectives; that is why sometimes they are called ‘verbal adjectives’. These verbal adjectives or participial adjectives are used to describe the action or state of being of a person or an object and they agree in the gender and number with the nouns that they modify. In Hindi, formation of the participles from noun can be realized in the following ways:

- **By adding the suffix ‘/-ta/-ti/ or /-te/’**

Suffix ‘/-ta/ or /-ti/’ is added to verb base in order to form participles in the progressive aspect. In such construction, /həa/, /həi/ or /həe/ is optional but usually added after the adjectives. For masculine singular subjects /-ta/ is added while /-ti/ is used for feminine singular subjects and for plural subjects /-te/ is added to the verb stem.

Verb		Suffix		Derived Adjective
/b ^h ōkna/	‘to bark’	+ /-ta/	= /b ^h ōk-ta (həa)/	‘barking’
/cālna/	‘to move’	+ /-ti/	= /cāl-ti (həi)/	‘moving’
/gīrna/	‘to fall’	+ /-te/	= /gīr-te (həe)/	‘falling’

Example in Sentences:

/b ^h ōkta həa	kutta kaṭega nāhī/	‘Barking dog won’t bite’
/cālta həi	gaṛī se utarna ṭhīk nāhī hē/	‘It is not right to get down from a moving car’
/gīrte həe	pāṭṭe dīk ^h ne mē ācc ^h e lāgte hē/	‘Falling leaves looks good’

- **By adding the suffix ‘/-a/-i/ or /-e/’**

Suffix ‘/-a/ or /-i/’ is added to verb base in order to form participles in the perfective aspect. In such construction, /həa/, /həi/ or /həe/ is optional but usually added after the adjectives. For masculine singular subjects /-a/ is added while /-i/ is used for feminine singular subjects and for plural subjects /-e/ is added to the verb stem.

Verb		Suffix		Derived Adjective
/ṭuṭna/	‘to be broken’	+ /-a/	= /ṭuṭ-a/ (həa)	‘broken’
/likhna/	‘to write’	+ /-i/	= /lik ^h -i/ (həi)	‘written’
/c ^h āpnā/	‘to get printed’	+ /-e/	= /c ^h āp-e/ (həe)	‘printed’

Example in Sentences:

/t̪ʌt̪a h̪ʌa tara dekʰna ʃubʰ hota h̪e/	‘It is good to see a broken (particle) star’
/likʰi h̪ʌi ciʈʰi ōsko bʰeʃni h̪e/	‘The written letter is to be send to him’
/cʰəpe h̪ʌe pustəkō ko pəʈʰna asan h̪e/	‘What is your name?’

4.6. Adverb

Adverb is a wordclass or a part of speech that modifies or describes verbs, adjectives or other adverbs. Adverbs provide additional information about how, when or to what extent an action is performed or quality is expressed. Types of adverbs in Hindi are as follows:

(i) Adverb of Manner

Adverb of manner is a type of adverb that modifies or describes the manner or way in which an action or verb is performed. Adverbs of manner provide information about how an action is carried out or the way in which something happens.

Adverb	Example in Sentence		
/dʰirese/	‘slowly’	/dʰirese bolo/	‘Speak slowly’
/ʃorse/	‘loudly’	/ʃorse bat mət kəro/	‘Don’t speak loudly’
/dʰjanse/	‘carefully’	/dʰjanse likho/	‘Write carefully’

(ii) Adverb of Time

Adverb of time is a type of adverb that modifies or describes the time of an action or event. Adverbs of time provide information about when an action or event occurred or will occur.

Adverb	Example in Sentence		
/car bəʃe/	‘4 O’ clock’	/car bəʃe ke bad ao/	‘Come after 4 O’ clock’
/kəl/	‘tomorrow’	/mē tumse kəl mīlōṅga/	‘I will meet you tomorrow’
/səbəh/	‘morning’	/bəh aʃ səbəh ʃəldi ʋʈʰ gəʃi/	‘She woke up early this morning’

(iii) Adverb of Place

Adverb of place is a type of adverb that modifies or describes the location or position of an action or event. Adverbs of place provide information about where an action is taking place or where something is located.

Adverb		Example in Sentence	
/jəhã/	‘here’	/mẽ jəhã ata hũ/	‘I come here’
/ɔpər (se)/	‘over’	/ɕɪɽja matʰe ke upər se ɔɽ gəja/	‘The bird flew over the head’
/səbəh/	‘below’	/kɪtab ɽəbəl ke nice hæ/	‘The book is under the table’

(iv) Adverb of Degree

Adverb of place is a type of adverb that modifies or describes the degree or intensity of an action, adjective or other adverb. Adverb of degree provide information about the level or extent to which. Something is being done or is true. They are essential in conveying the strength or weakness of an action or quality.

Adverb		Example in Sentence	
/bəhɔt/	‘bəhɔt’	/ɔse dekʰkər vəh bəhut kʰuɸ hui/	‘She was very happy to see him’
/behəd/	‘extremely’	/vəh film behəd məzedar tʰi/	‘The movie was extremely funny’
/pura/	‘below’	/ɔse pura jəkin tʰa kɪ vəh səhi tʰi/	‘She was completely sure that she was right’

(v) Adverb of Frequency

Adverb of place is a type of adverb that modifies or describes the degree or intensity of an action, adjective or other adverb. Adverb of degree provide information about the level or extent to which. Something is being done or is true. They are essential in conveying the strength or weakness of an action or quality.

Adverb		Example in Sentence	
/həmeɸa/	‘always’	/vəh həmeɸa ɽəldi uɽhti hæ/	‘She always wakes up early’
/əksər/	‘often’	/ve əksər subəh dooɽne ɽate hẽ/	‘The movie was extremely funny’
/kəbʰi kəbʰi/	‘sometimes’	/ve kəbʰi kəbʰi ɽəhəlne ɽate hẽ/	‘They go for a walk sometimes’

4.7. Negativization

Negativization is the process of expressing negation or the absence or opposite of something in a sentence. This can be achieved through the use of negative words, particles or affixes or by using specific sentence structures or grammatical constructions that indicate negation. The purpose of negativization is to convey a negative meaning or to deny the occurrences or existence of something.

In Hindi also, negatives are formed by using negative words or particles that are added to the sentence; examples are as follows:

- By adding /nəhĩ/:

/mẽ **nəhĩ** ja rəha hũ/
 /am mɪʈʰe **nəhĩ** hẽ/
 /jəh meri kɪtab **nəhĩ** hẽ/

‘I am not going’
 ‘Mangoes are not sweet’
 ‘This is not my book’

- By adding /na/:

/sima ek ciʈʰi **na** lɪkʰ səki/
 /na vəh ata hẽ dɔr **na** mɔʃʰe ane deta hẽ/
 /kɪsi se kəbʰi ləɽai **na** kərna/

‘Seema could not write a letter’
 ‘Neither he comes nor hr let me come’
 ‘Don’t fight with any one’

- By adding /mæt/:

/təm mɔʃʰe **mæt** sikʰao/
 /mənə **mæt** kəro/
 /kɪsi ko təŋg **mæt** kəro/

‘Don’t teach me’
 ‘Don’t say no’
 ‘Don’t tease any one’

- By adding /koi nəhĩ/:

/jəhā **koi nəhĩ** hẽ/
 /jəh kam həmmẽ se **koi nəhĩ** kər səkta/
 /jəh **koi nəhĩ** janta/

‘There is no one here’
 ‘None of us can do this work’
 ‘No one knows this’

- By adding /kəbʰi nəhĩ/:

/mẽ ne v̥se **kəbʰi nəhĩ** dekʰa/
 /ɛsa **kəbʰi nəhĩ** h̥ɔa/
 /vəh ɛsa **kəbʰi nəhĩ** kəh səkta/

‘I have never seen him’
 ‘This has never happened’
 ‘He can never say like this’

4.8. Passivization

Passivization is a grammatical process by which the subject of a sentence is made the patient or receiver of an action, while the agent or doer of the action is either omitted or introduced as a prepositional phrase or with a postpositon. The purpose is often to shift the focus of the sentence from the agent or doer of the action to the object or recipient of the action. It is a common way of emphasizing the importance of the action rather than the agent performing it. Generally, in Passivization the subject of the active sentence becomes the agent of the

passive sentence, and is marked by a preposition or postposition while, the object of the active sentence becomes the subject of the passive sentence and receives the action of the verb that changes its form to agree with the new subject of the sentence.

In Hindi, passive verbs are formed by combining a perfect participle form of the main verb with a form of /*ḥana*/ ‘to do’ which acts as an auxiliary verb. Both the verbs agree with the subject in terms of person, number and gender and the auxiliary is also inflected according to tense, aspect and mood etc. The agentive propositions which mark the agent of a passive verb in Hindi include the postposition /*dvara*/ or /*ke dvara*/ ‘by’. Examples are as follows:

- | | | |
|-------------------------|---|------------------------------|
| Active Sentence | - / <i>rəməṇ gaɽi cəlatə hɛ</i> / | ‘Raman drives the car’ |
| Passive Sentence | - / <i>rəməṇ ke dvara gaɽi cəlai ʃatɾi hɛ</i> / | ‘The car is driven by Raman’ |

- | | | |
|-------------------------|--|--------------------------------------|
| Active Sentence | - / <i>əʃək ek pətrə likʰ rəha hɛ</i> / | ‘Ashok is writing a letter’ |
| Passive Sentence | - / <i>əʃək ke dvara ek pətrə likʰa ʃa rəha hɛ</i> / | ‘A letter is being written by Ashok’ |

- | | | |
|-------------------------|--|------------------------------------|
| Active Sentence | - / <i>sita ne pʰul toɽe</i> / | ‘Sita plucked the flowers’ |
| Passive Sentence | - / <i>sita dvara pʰul toɽe gəje</i> / | ‘The flowers were plucked by Sita’ |

4.9. Causativization:

Causativization is a grammatical process by which a verb is modified to indicate that the subject of the verb is causing or forcing or allowing another person or thing to perform an action. In other words, this is a linguistic operation that expresses the idea of making or causing someone or something to do something. The causative forms can be used in a wide range of situations such as describing the action of getting someone to do something or describing how something was caused to happen. It is also used to express politeness, especially in languages where it is considered impolite to give direct orders or commands.

Causatives can be formed in various ways depending on the language. In some languages it is formed syntactically by expressing the sense of causation through specific expressions such as, ‘make to do’ in English, as in ‘I have made him to do the work’ etc. On the other hand, there are some languages where causation is expressed morphologically as in Hindi where causatives are formed by adding suffix /-a/ or /-va/ with the base form of the verb.

In Hindi, verbs can be categorized into three related categories which express various relationship between the subject of the verb and verb itself; they are —, intransitive, transitive and Causative. Intransitive verbs are those that do not take any direct object for example: the verb /*pəkna*/ ‘being cooked’ in /*kʰana pək gəja*/ ‘food is cooked’ is an intransitive verb as the sentence is in quasi-passive voice here. In order to make it transitive suffix /-a/ is added to the base form of the verb, for example, /*pəkana*/ ‘to cook’ in /*mɛ ne kʰana pəkaja hɛ*/ ‘I have

cooked the food’. In this process the verb becomes transitive as it takes /-kʰana/ as its direct object here. Further, suffix /-va/ can be added in order to get the causative form i.e. /pəkuva/ ‘to make someone to cook’ in /mẽ ne ʊnse kʰana pəkuve hẽ /.

However, not only the intransitive verbs, transitive verbs like - /kʰana/ ‘to eat’, /pina/ ‘to drink’ also have their causative forms. In these cases, /-a/ is added to the base form of the verb to get the first causative form i.e. /-kʰilana/ ‘to feed’ while /-va/ is added to get the second causative form i.e. /-kʰilvana/ ‘to cause someone to feed’. Examples of causative formation in Hindi are as follows:

Intransitive		Transitive		Causative	
/ʃəlna/	‘to get burnt’	/ʃəlna/	‘to burn’	/ʃəlvana/	‘to cause someone to burn something’
/sona/	‘to sleep’	/səlna/	‘to put to sleep’	/səlvana/	‘to cause someone to put someone to sleep’
/ʊtʰna/	‘to rise’	/ʊtʰna/	‘to raise’	/uthvana/	‘to cause someone to raise something/’someone’
Transitive		1st Causative		2nd Causative	
/kʰana/	‘to eat’	/kʰilana/	‘to feed’	/kʰilvana/	‘to cause someone to feed’
/pina/	‘to drink’	/pilana/	‘to make someone to drink’	/bitʰana/	To cause someone to make someone to drink’
/pəʃna/	‘to read’	‘pəʃana’	‘to teach’	/pəʃvana/	‘to cause someone to teach’

5. SYNTAX

Syntax is a branch of linguistics that deals with the rules that govern the arrangement of words and phrases to create well-formed sentences in a language. It involves the study of how words are combined to form phrases, phrases are combined to form clauses and how clauses are combined to form sentences. Syntax also deals with the relationships between words and the structures that govern the formation of sentences, including word order, sentence structure, and grammatical categories and the rules of agreement between different parts of a sentence.

5.1 Word Order

Word order refers to the sequence in which words are arranged to form a sentence in a language. It involves the positioning of subject, verb, object and other syntactic elements in relation to each other to convey meaning. The word order of a sentence can vary across different languages and can have a significant impact on the meaning of a sentence. The word order of Hindi is of SOV pattern. Examples are as follows:

/ve	pənc ^{hi}	dek ^{hte}	hẽ/	‘They see the bird’
3PL	bird	see-	PRS.3PL	
S	O		V	

/mẽ	roti	k ^h ata	hũ/	‘I eat bread’
1SG	bread	eat-	PRS.1SG	
S	O		V	

/təmhari	betiko	bəlaə/	‘Call your daughter’
2SG.GEN	daughter	call.IMP	
S	O		V

5.2 Types of Sentences

A sentence is a group of words that express a complete thought, idea or statement. It typically contains a subject (a person, thing or idea) and a predicate (what the subject is doing or what is being said about it). A sentence can be short or long but it must convey a complete sense, thought or idea that can stand alone structurally, sentences can be of three types – (i) Simple Sentence, (ii) Complex Sentence and (iii) Compound Sentence.

(i) Simple Sentence

A simple sentence is a sentence structure that consists of one independent clause which contains a subject and a predicate and can stand alone as a complete sentence. It expresses a single idea or thought and typically has a basic structure with a basic word order. Simple

sentences are commonly used in everyday speech as they always express a complete thought with a subject and a verb. Example of Simple sentences of Hindi are as follows:

/mẽ vəhã ʃata hũ/
1SG there go-PRS.1SG
'I go there'

/vəh gão mẽ rəhəta hɛ/
3SG village in-LOC live-PRS.3SG
'He lives in the village'

/mera nam narajən hɛ /
1SG-GEN name Narayan be-PRS.1SG
'My name is Narayan'

(ii) Complex Sentence

A complex sentence is a sentence structure that contains one independent clause (a complete clause that can stand alone as a complete sentence) and at least one dependant clause (a clause that can not stand alone as a complete sentence). The dependant clause provides additional information about the independent clause and can not be used on its own.

[/ʃəb tək tɔm nəhĩ aoge] [mẽ jəhã rəhəŋga/]
[till 2SG NEG. be-FUT.2PL] [1SG here stay FUT.1SG]
dependant clause independent clause
'I will stay here until you will come'

[/ʃəh vəhi admi hɛ] [ʃis-se mẽ kəl mɪlatʰa/]
[this the man be.PRS.3SG] [whom-with 1SG yesterday meet.PST]
independant clause dependent clause
'If police come then the thief will be caught'

[/vəh əjga] [ʊske bəd hi mẽ ʃaʊŋga/]
[1SG come-FUT.1SG] [that after only 1SG go.FUT.1SG]
independant clause dependent clause
'I shall go only after he comes'

(iii) Compound Sentence

A compound sentence is a sentence structure that contains two or more independent clauses (a complete clause that can stand alone) joined together by a conjunction. Each independent clause expresses a distinct idea or thought and the coordinating conjunct helps to link them together.

[/dɪn mē kam kərē] [ɔr] [rat mē soē/]
 [day in work do-IMP.] [and] [night at sleep-IMP]
 independant clause conjunct independent clause
 ‘Work in the day and sleep at night’

[/mera pər pʰɪsəl gəjə] [ɔr] [mē gir gəjə]
 [3SG-GEN leg slip be.PST.] [and] [1SG fall be.PST]
 independant clause conjunct independent clause
 ‘My foot slipped and I fell down’

[/təm pɛse vʌpəs kəro] [vərnə] [təko mar pəregi]
 [2SG money return do.PRS] [othrtwise] [2SG beat get.FUT]
 independant clause conjunct independent clause
 ‘Return the money othetwise you’ll get beaten’

5.3. Structure of Phrases

A phrase is a group of words that functions as a single unit in a sentence but does not contain both a subject and a verb. Phrase can be of various types, such as, Noun Phrase, Adjective Phrase, Adverb Phrase, Prepositional Phrase etc. Phrase structure of Hindi are as follows:

(i) Noun Phrase

A noun phrase is a group of words that function together as a single unit and includes a noun or pronoun as the head word or main word that gives the phrase its meaning along with other modifying words that modify it. Examples of Hindi are as follows:

/təmhəri do kɪtabē/	‘Two books of yours’
/əccʰe bəccə/	‘The good children’
/səfed gʰoɾə/	‘The white horses’

(ii) Verb Phrase

A verb phrase is a group of words that includes the main verb and one or more auxiliary (helping) verbs, which together function as a single unit within a sentence. The main verb in a verb phrase typically expresses the action or state of being while the auxiliary verb provides additional information about the tense, aspect or mood of the main verb. Verb phrase can function as the predicate of a sentence and they can be used to express a variety of meanings, including action, occurrence, possession and more. Examples of Hindi are as follows:

/mẽ ciɽɪa dekʰta hũ /	‘I see the bird’
/vəh ek kɪtab pəɽʰ rəha hæ /	‘He is reading a book’
/surəɟ purəb dɪʃa mẽ əɟta hæ /	‘The Sun rises in the east’

(iii) Postpositional Phrase

A postpositional phrase is a type of phrase in which a postposition (a word that comes after a noun or pronoun to indicate its relationship with another element in a sentence) functions as the head of the phrase. The postpositional phrase includes the postposition and any noun or pronoun that precedes it, as well as any modifiers that comes before or after the postposition. Examples of Hindi are as follows:

/ʈəbəl pər kʰəɽe ho ɟao/	‘Stand on the table’
/mẽ pəɽ ke pas hũ/	‘I am near the tree’
/kutta mere picʰe aɟa/	‘The dog came behind me’

(iv) Adjective Phrase

An adjective phrase is a group of words that function together as a single unit and modify a noun or pronoun in a sentence. The head word of an adjective phrase is typically an adjective that describes the characteristics or qualities of noun, while any other words in the phrase provide additional information or clarification about the description. Examples of Hindi are as follows:

/ʈɟəbəl nila akaɟ/	‘bright blue sky’
/svadɪʃʈ cokolet kek /	‘delicious chocolate cake’
/nəi cəmkili ɟaɽi/	‘shiny new car’

(v) Adverb Phrase

An adverb phrase is a group of words that function together as a single unit and modify a verb, an adjective or another adverb in a sentence. The head word of an adverb phrase is typically an adverb that describes the manner, place, time, degree or frequency of the action or event being described while any other words in the phrase provide additional information or clarification about the adverb. Examples of Hindi are as follows:

/vəh bəhəɽ dʰire dʰire lɪkʰta hæ/	‘He eats very slowly’
/vəh pəri tərəh se bədəl ɟəɟi hæ/	‘She has transformed completely’
/ bəhəɽ dʰirese bat kəro/	‘Speak very slowly’

5.4. Structure of Clauses

A clause is a grammatical unit that consists of a subject and a predicate. It can be a complete sentence on its own or a part of a larger sentence. A clause typically contains a verb and describes an action, occurrence or state of being. It may also include other elements such as objects, complements or modifiers. There are two main types of clauses: Independent clause and Dependent Clause.

Independent Clause- An Independent clause is a type of clause that can stand alone as a complete sentence. It has a subject and a predicate and expresses a complete thought or statement. Independent clauses are also called the main clauses because they can be used independently of other clauses.

Dependent Clause- A dependent clause is a type of clause that can not stand alone as a complete sentence. It has a subject and a predicate, but does not express a complete thought or statement. Instead, it relies on an independent clause to complete its meaning. Dependent clauses are also called subordinate clauses because they depend on other clauses.

In Hindi, the concept of Independent and Dependent clause can be realized as follows:

[/jəh vəhi admi hɛ]	[jisse mɛ̃ kəl mɪla tʰa/]
[3SG that man be-PRS]	[REL. 1SG yesterday meet be.PST]
dependent clause	independent clause
‘This is the man whom I met yesterday’	

In Hindi, dependent clauses are called ‘गौण उपवाक्य’ i.e. subordinate sentences and can be further divided into different types based on their function in a sentence –

(i) Noun Clause

A dependent clause that functions as a noun in a sentence, is called a noun clause. In Hindi, a noun clause is generally formed using a subordinating conjunct /ki/ ‘that’ which makes it a dependent clause. Examples are as follows:

[kəhã ʃata hɛ]	[ki jəh admi bʰəroʃe ke kabil nəhɪ̃ hɛ/]
[say. PASS. be]	[that this man trust-GEN. worthy NEG. be]
independent clause	dependent clause
‘It is said that this man is not trust-worthy’	

[/mɛ̃ ʃanta hũ]	[ki vəh bəhəst vɛst hɛ/]
[1SG know be.PRS.1SG]	[that 3SG very busy be.PRS.3SG]
independent clause	dependent clause
‘I know that he is very busy’	

(ii) Adverbial Clause

A dependent clause that functions as an adverb in a sentence, is called an adverbial clause. It provides information about when, where, why or how something happened in the independent clause. In Hindi, an adverbial clause is introduced by using a subordinating conjunctions such as, /ʃəb/ ‘when’, /ʃəb tək/ ‘until’, /jəhā/ ‘where’, /əgər/ ‘if’ etc. which makes it a dependent clause. Examples are as follows:

[/ʃəb tək tɔm nəhī̃ aogə]
[till 2SG NEG. be-FUT.2SG]

dependant clause

‘I will stay here until you come’

[mẽ jəhā rəhuŋɡɑ/]
[1SG here stay FUT.1SG]

independent clause

[/əgər ɡʰoɽe ke pəŋkʰ hote]
[if horse-PL GEN wing be.FUT.3PL]

dependant clause

‘If horses had wings they would have flown’

[ʋe ʋɽ ʃate/]
[3PL fly AUX.FUT.3PL.]

independent clause

(iii) Relative/ Adjective Clause

A relative clause, also known as an adjective clause, is a type of dependent clause that modifies a noun or pronoun in the main clause. In Hindi, relative clause is introduced by using a subordinating conjunctions such as, /ʃo/ ‘who/which’, /ʃisko/ ‘whom’, /ʃiskɑ/ ‘whose’ etc. which makes it a dependent clause. Examples are as follows:

[/ʃis ɔɔrət ne kəl ap-se bat
ki tʰi]

[who woman ERG yesterday 2SG-to talk
AUX.PST.]

dependant clause

‘The woman who talked to you is my sister’

[ʋəh meri bəhen hɛ/]

[1SG 1SG.GEN sister be.PRS.]

independent clause

[/jəh ʋəhi admi hɛ]
[this the man be.PRS.3SG]

independant clause

‘This is the man whom I met yesterday’

[ʃis-se mẽ kəl mɪlatʰɑ/]
[whom-with 1SG yesterday

meet.PST]

dependent clause

(iv) Correlative Clause

A correlative clause is a type of subordinate clause that is linked to the main clause by correlative conjunctions in order to depict the relationship between the ideas expressed in the

main clause and the dependant clause, emphasizing the relation or parallelism between them. In Hindi, Correlative clauses are introduced by pair of conjunctions such as, /ʃo...vo/ etc. Examples are as follows:

[/kəl ʃo admi mər gəjə]	[vo ek gəjək tʰa/]
[yesterday REL. man die be.PST]	[DEM a singer be.PST.3SG]
‘The man who died yesterday was a singer’	

[/ʃo ləʃki kʰəʃi hɐ]	[vo ləmbi hɐ/]
[REL girl stand be.PRS.3SG]	[DEM tall be.PRS.3SG]
‘The girl who is standing is tall’	

5.5. Patterns of Sentences

A sentence is a group of words that express a complete thought, idea or statement. It typically contains a subject (a person, thing or idea) and a predicate (what the subject is doing or what is being said about it). Semantically, sentences can be of main five types; they are –

- (i) Declarative Sentence
- (ii) Interrogative Sentence
- (iii) Imperative Sentence
- (iv) Exclamatory Sentence
- (v) Optative Sentence

(i) Declarative Sentence

A declarative sentence is a type of sentence that makes a statement or assertion. It is used to convey information, express thoughts or ideas or to state a fact. A declarative sentence can either be affirmative or negative. An affirmative declarative sentence simply affirms something to be true while a negative declarative sentence denies something to be true.

/surəʃ purəb dɪʃa mɛ ʊɡta hɐ/	‘Sun rises in the east.’
/mɛ ne ʊse kəbʰi nəhɪ dekʰa/	‘I have never seen him.’
/mɛ ɡəo mɛ rɐhɐta hũ/	‘I live in a village.’
/am mɪtʰe nəhɪ hɛ/	‘Mangoes are not sweet.’
/ʊəh ɡʰər cəlati hɐ/	‘She runs the house.’

(ii) Interrogative Sentence

An interrogative sentence is a type of sentence that asks a question. It is used to gather information or to seek clarification on a particular topic. Examples from Hindi are as follows:

/təmharə nam kja hɐ/	‘What is your name?’
/kja ʊəh apki behən hɐ/	‘Is she your sister?’

/təm kjū ʃa rəhe ho/	‘Why are you going?’
/kja təm jəh kər səkte ho/	‘Can you do it?’
/kja ʊmrə hē apki/	‘How old are you?’

(iii) Imperative Sentence

An imperative sentence is a type of sentence that gives a command, advice, request or instruction. It is used to direct someone, to do something or to provide guidance on how to perform a task etc. Examples from Hindi are as follows:

/təbəl pər kʰəɽe ho ʃao/	‘Stand on the table.’
/dʰire se bat kəro/	‘Speak slowly.’
/təmhari beɽiko bəlao/	‘Call your daughter.’
/apko dʰjan rəkʰna caɦije/	‘You should be careful.’
/kripəja meri mədəd kərē/	‘Please help me.’

(iv) Exclamatory Sentence

An exclamatory sentence is a type of sentence that expresses strong emotions such as surprise, excitement, sorrow, or anger. It is used to make an emphatic statement or to convey intense feelings about something. Examples from Hindi are as follows:

/təm kɪtne ləmbə ho gəje ho! /	‘How tall you have grown!’
/ʊəh əbʰi bʰi ʃəʋan ləɡta hē! /	‘He seems still young!’
/kɪtna sʊndər məndɪr hē! /	‘What a beautiful temple is this!’
/akəʃ mē kɪtna sʊndar ɪndrdʰənsʃ hē! /	‘What a beautiful rainbow in the Sky!’
/haj! mē bərbaɖ ho gəja! /	‘Alas! I am ruined!’

(v) Optative Sentence

An optative sentence is a type of sentence that expresses a wish, hope, desire or prayer etc. It is often used to express a sense of longing or to express a desire for something to happen. Examples from Hindi are as follows:

/iʃʊər təmhe səpʰəltə de/	‘Myay God give you success.’
/səb hi log kʰuʃ rəhē/	‘Let everyone be happy’
/bʰəɡʋan apko ləmbi ʊmrə de/	‘My you live long by God’s grace.’
/apko jənəmdɪn ki bəhəst sari ʃubʰkamnaɟē/	‘Wish you a veru happy birthday’
/aʃa kərte hē kɪ səb bəɽʰɪa ho/	‘Let’s hope for the best.’

5.6 Negativization

Negativization is the process of expressing negation or the absence or opposite of something in a sentence. This can be achieved through the use of negative words, particles or affixes or by using specific sentence structures or grammatical constructions that indicate

negation. The purpose of negativization is to convey a negative meaning or to deny the occurrences or existence of something. It involves transforming an affirmative sentence into a negative one.

Negativization in Hindi can be complex and may involve the use of multiple words and grammatical particles to convey the desired meaning. In Hindi also, negatives are formed by using negative words or particles that are added to the sentence; examples are as follows:

- **By adding /nəhī/:**

Assertive	- /mɔʃʰe tɔmhəri zərɔrət hɛ/	‘I need you’
Negative	- /mɔʃʰe tɔmhəri zərɔrət nəhī hɛ/	‘I don’t need you’
Assertive	- /kəl cʰɔʈʈʃi hɛ/	‘Tomorrow is a holiday’
Negative	- /kəl cʰɔʈʈʃi nəhī hɛ/	‘Tomorrow is not a holiday’
Assertive	- /am mɪʈʰe hɛ/	‘Mangoes are sweet’
Negative	- /am mɪʈʰe nəhī hɛ/	‘Mangoes are not sweet’

- **By adding /na/:**

Assertive	- /ɔnki vəʃəh se mɛ səpʰəl ho səka/	‘I could become successful because of him.’
Negative	- /ɔnki vəʃəh se mɛ səpʰəl na ho səka/	‘He couldn’t hold back his tears’
Assertive	- /ɔsne əpne āsuō ko rok lja/	‘He held back his tears’
Negative	- /ɔsne əpne āsuō ko na rok paja/	‘Tomorrow us not a holiday’
Assertive	- /ram ne jəh bat kəh dija/	‘Ram said this’
Negative	- /ram jəh bat kəh na saka/	‘Ram could not say this’

- **By adding /mæt/:**

Assertive	- /ɔnski mədəd kər do/	‘Help her’
Negative	- /ɔnski mədəd mæt kəro/	‘Don’t help her’
Assertive	- /məna kər do/	‘Say no’
Negative	- /məna mæt kəro/	‘Don’t say no’
Assertive	- /mɔʃʰe bətao/	‘Tell me’
Negative	- /mɔʃʰe mæt bətao/	‘Don’t tell me’

- **By adding /koi nəhī/:**

Assertive	- /ʊəhā hər koi ʃata hɛ/	‘Everyone goes there’
Negative	- /ʊəhā hər koi nəhī ʃata/	‘No one goes there’
Assertive	- /səb hi ɛsa kərtə hɛ/	‘Everyone does like this’
Negative	- /ɛsa koi nəhī kərtə/	‘No one does this’
Assertive	- /jəh səb ʃante hɛ/	‘Everyone knows this’
Negative	- /jəh koi nəhī ʃanta/	‘No one knows this’

- **By adding /kəbʰi nəhī/:**

Assertive	- /ʊski halət sɔdʰər ʃajgi/	‘She will get better’
Negative	- /ʊski halət kəbʰi nəhī sɔdʰregi/	‘She will never get better’
Assertive	- /ʊəh həmeʃa pədəl cəltə hɛ/	‘He always walks’
Negative	- /ʊəh pədəl kəbʰi nəhī cəltə/	‘He never walks’
Assertive	- /mẽ ne ʊse dekʰa hɛ/	‘I have seen him’
Negative	- /mẽ ne ʊse kəbʰi nəhī dekʰa/	‘I have never seen him’

5.7 Passivization

Passivization is a grammatical process by which the subject of a sentence is made the patient or receiver of an action, while the agent or doer of the action is either omitted or introduced as a prepositional phrase or with a postpositon.

In Hindi, passive verbs are formed by combining a perfect participle form of the main verb with a form of /ʃana/ ‘to do’ which acts as an auxiliary verb. Both the verbs agree with the subject in terms of person, number and gender and the auxiliary is also inflected according to tense, aspect and mood etc. In Hindi, generally the agent is not mentioned in the passive sentences. The subject of the corresponding active sentence is therefore omitted, and the object of the active sentence becomes the subject of the passive sentence. The agentive proposition (if present) which mark the agent of a passive verb in Hindi include the postposition /dvara/ or /ke dvara/ ‘by’. Examples are as follows:

Passivization in Intransitive Verbs

/həm zəmin pər bɛʃʰte hɛ/	‘We sit on the ground’
/(həmare dvara) zəmin pər bɛʃʰa ʃata hɛ/	‘(We) sit on the ground’ (lit. the floor is sat upon)

/g^hoɾe dɔoɾte hẽ/
/g^hoɾe dvara dɔoɾa ʒata hɛ/

‘Horses run’
‘Running is done by the horses’

Passivization in Transitive Verbs:

/mẽ roʈi k^hata hũ/
/roʈi mere dvara k^haʒa ʒata hɛ/

‘I eat bread’
‘Bread is eaten by me’

/ʋe kɪtabẽ c^hap rəhe t^he/
/ʋnke dvara kɪtabẽ c^hapi ʒa rəhi t^hi/

‘They were printing books’
‘Books were being printed by them’

Passivization in Ditransitive Verbs:

/sərkar gəribõ ko pɛsa deti hɛ/
/sərkar dvara gəribõ ko pɛsa diʒa ʒata hɛ/

‘Govrnmnt gives money to poor’
‘Money is given by the Government to the poor’

/ʋəh mɔʒ^he əŋgreʒi pəɾ^hte hẽ/
/(muj^ʒ^he) əŋgreʒi ʋnke dvara pəɾ^haʒa ʒata hɛ/

‘He teaches me English’
‘English is taught to me by him’

5.8. Causativization

Causativization is a grammatical process by which a verb is modified to indicate that the subject of the verb is causing or forcing or allowing another person or thing to perform an action. In other words, this is a linguistic operation that expresses the idea of making or causing someone or something to do something. The causatives form can be used in a wide range of situations such as describing the action of getting someone to do something or describing how something was caused to happen. It is also used to express politeness, especially in languages where it is considered impolite to give direct orders or commands.

Causatives can be formed in various ways depending on the language. In some languages it is formed syntactically by expressing the sense of causation through specific expressions such as, ‘make to do’ in English, as in ‘I have made him to do the work’ etc. On the other hand, there are some languages where causation is expressed morphologically as in Hindi where causatives are formed by adding suffix /-a/ or /-ʋa/ with the base form of the verb. This has been discussed in detail in section 4.9. However, when the causatives are expressed in sentences the recipient of a transitive verb is often (not always) marked with /-ko/ and where the agent of the second causative verb is mentioned, then it is followed by the postposition /-se/. Examples are as follows:

Causation in Intransitive Verb

Intransitive	/ʃəlna/	‘to get burnt’	-	/kʰana ʃəl qəja/	‘Food got burnt’
Transitive	/ʃəlna/	‘to burn’	-	/mẽ ne kʰana ʃəlaʃa/	‘I burned the food’
Causative	/ʃəlvana/	‘to cause someone to burn’	-	/ʊsne mʊʃʰse kʰana ʃəlvaja/	‘He made me to burn the food’

Causation in Transitive Verb:

Transitive	/kʰana/	‘to eat’	-	/bəcca kʰana kʰata hɛ/	‘Baby eats food’
1 st Causative	/kʰɪlana/	‘to burn’	-	/mẽ becce ko kʰana kʰɪlati hũ/	‘I feed the baby’
2 nd Causative	/kʰɪlavna/	‘to cause someone to burn’	-	/mẽ nərsse becce ko kʰana kʰɪlati hũ/	‘I make the nurse to feed the baby’

6. CONCLUSION

Hindi belongs to the Indo-Aryan branch of the Indo-European language family, which is characterized by a number of genealogical and typological features that set apart from other branches of Indo-European family.

Genealogical Features:

- Hindi derives its vocabulary primarily from Sanskrit, which is an ancient Indo-Aryan language.
- It has a number of shared features with other Indo-Aryan languages, such as, Punjabi, Bengali, Gujarati etc., indicating their common origin.
- Hindi has undergone various changes over time due to its interaction with other languages and dialects, such as, Persian, Arabic, and English etc. which have contributed to its unique characteristics.

Typological Features:

- Hindi is an inflected language, which means that it uses a system of affixes to indicate grammatical relationships between words, such as, tense, case, gender etc.
- It has a complex morphological system for nouns that distinguishes between masculine and feminine genders and has eight different cases.
- Hindi has a verb-final sentence structure, which means that the verb typically comes at the end of the sentence. The sentence structure in Hindi follows the subject-object-verb (SOV) pattern.
- It has a complex system of honorifics, which are used to show respect and social status in speech and writing.

Overall, Hindi's genealogical and typological features clearly establish it as an Indo-Aryan language, with its vocabulary, phonology, morphology and syntax distinguishing it from other languages within the Indo-European family of languages.

7. TEXT

/do dost or ek b^halu/

Two friends and a Bear

/ramu or jjam do dost t^he, ve jəŋgəl se ja rəhe t^he/

‘Two friends, Ramu and Shyam walked through a forest’

/ənhone ek dōsre se vada kija t^ha ki ve kisi b^hi k^hətre mē sat^h rəheŋge/

‘They promised each other that they would remain united in case of any danger’

.

/ek dīn ve ek jəŋgəl se ja rəhe t^he/

‘Once they were walking through a forest’

/samne se ek b^halu aja/

‘A bear came on their way’

/b^halu ko dek^h kər dono dost bəhut dər gəje/

‘Both of them got frightened seeing the bear’

/ramu peṛ pər cəṭ gəja/

‘Ramu climbed a tree’

/jjam ko peṛ pər cəṭ^hna nəhī ata t^ha/

‘Shyam did not know how to climb a tree’

/vəh əpne mītrə ramu se bola ‘mōj^he peṛ pər cəṭ^hna nəhī ata hē kripəja meri mādəd kəro’/

‘He told his friend, “I do not know how to climb a tree, please help me”’

/pər ramu ne koi ʃəvab nəhī dīja/

‘But Ramu did not respond’

/dəkʰi ɔr məjus hokər ke ʃjam zəmin pər əpni sāś rək kərke leʃ gəja/

‘In fear and grief, Shyam lay down on the ground breathless’

/ʃəld hi vəhā bʰalu a pəhūca zəmin pər leʃe ʃjamko dekʰ kər ke uske pas gəja/

‘The bear came near the man lying on the ground.’

/ɔr t̪se sunɡʰne ləga kuch der sunɡʰne ke bəd vəh ʃjam ko vəhi cʰor kər ke cəla gəja/

‘It smelt in his ears, and slowly left the place, leaving Shyam on the ground’

/peʃ pər beʃʰe ramu ko ləga ki bʰalu ʃjam ko kan me kuch bolke gəje h̪e.

‘Seating on the tree, Ramu thought that the bear had told something to Shyam’

/vəh ʃəldi se nice aja ɔr ʃjam se bola/

‘Ramu hurriedly came down from the tree and asked his friend Shyam’

/dost mere! vəh bʰalu t̪mhare kan m̪ē kja bola? /

‘Friend! what did the bear tell you into your ears?’

/ʃjam zəmin se uʃʰa ɔr ramu se bola, vəh bʰalu m̪əʃʰse bola kɪ ʃʰuʃe ɔr svarʰi logō pər bʰərosa m̪ət kəro ʃo t̪mko musibət m̪ē əkela cʰor kər ke cəla ʃaj/

‘Shyam got up from the ground and replied, ‘The bear advised me not to trust a friend who leaves you in times of trouble’’

/itna k̪əh kər ʃjam vəhā se əkele cəl dīja/

‘Saying this Shyam walked in his own way’

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1. INTRODUCTION

Awadhi is the main dialect of the Eastern Hindi Branch of the Indo Aryan Group of Languages spoken in Northern India. The term Awadhi appears to denote the language of Awadh (Oudh) but the language is not confined to the provinces of Oudh but it is chiefly spoken there so the name can be accepted. The name Awadh is connected to Ayodhya, the birth place of the Hindu God Rama.

Awadhi the name serves an area which served as of historic importance from the ancient times as here is the famous Ayodhya the birth place of the Hindu God Rama. In the literary field Awadhi stands immortalized in the *Ramacarita-manasa* of Tulsidas.

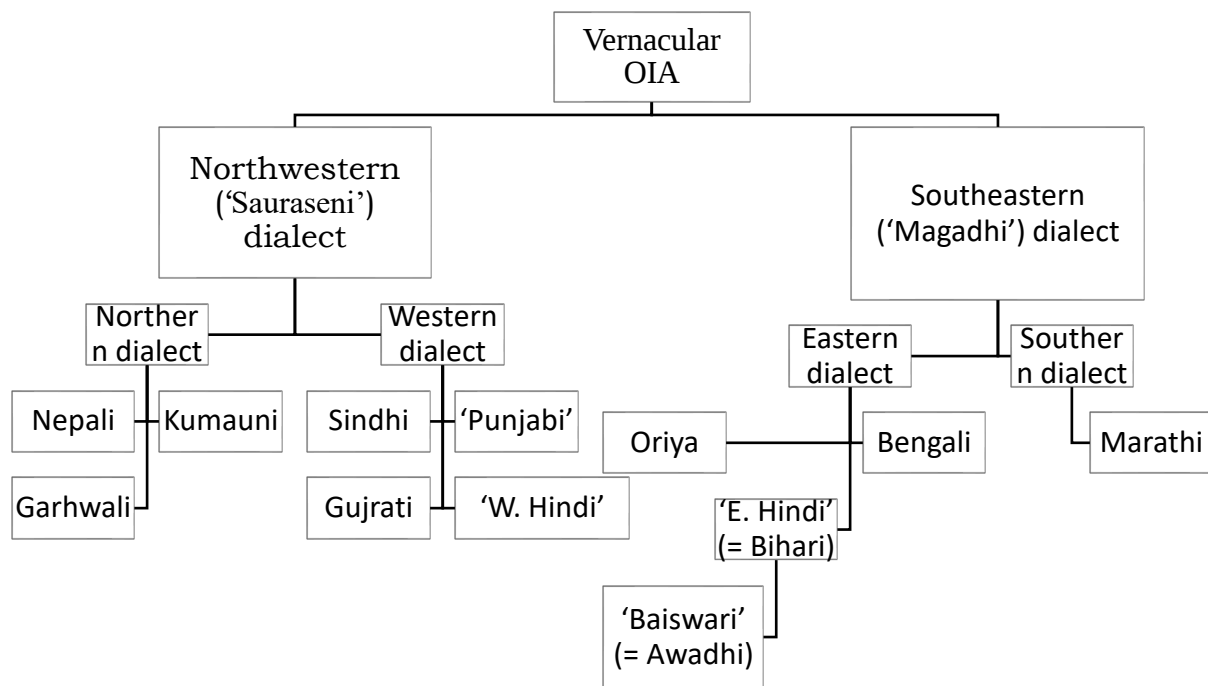
Awadhi is also alternatively known as Baiswara, which is a variety of Hindi spoken in the Hindi belt, mainly in northern Northern India and Nepal. It is, spoken in Awadh region of Uttar Pradesh along with the region including lower part of the Ganga-Yamuna confluence. In the west, it is bounded by other varieties of western Hindi, which include Kannauji and Bundeli, in the east it is bounded by Bhojpuri.

In the regional stretch of the Hindi belt, from east to west, following Grierson's statement, 'language changes every twenty miles', one finds various shades of the Hindi language. These varieties cannot be put into watertight compartments, but they merge gradually one into another. So, the various dialects of Hindi, Western or Eastern, are understandable not only with respect to neighboring varieties but to others also.

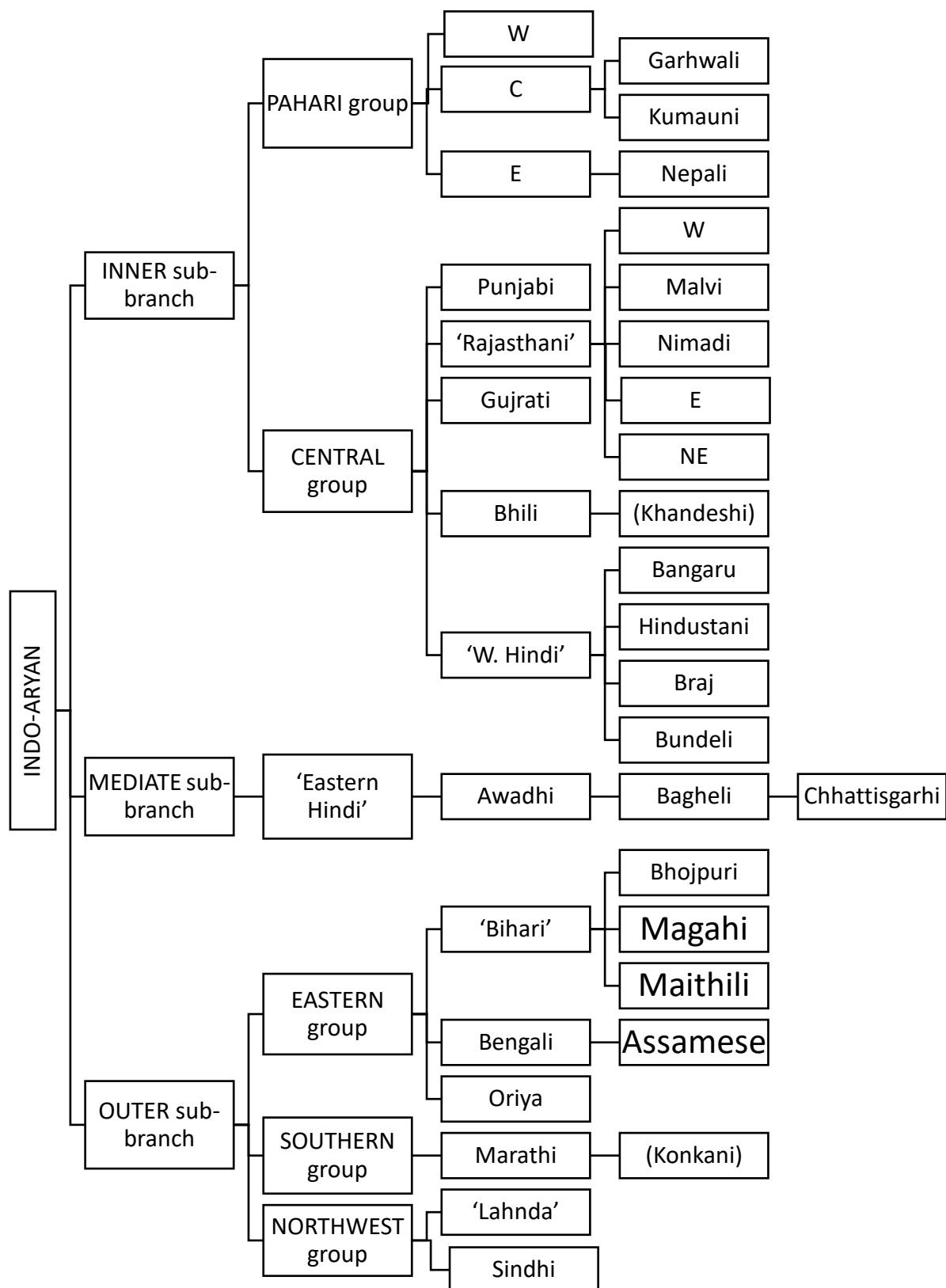
The reason for because of which it was easy for Grierson to connect Eastern Hindi with Ardhamagadhi – a language said to lie between Sauraseni and Magadhi. Awadhi was used as a literary device side by side with Braj before they were outed by Hindustani in the the last century.

i. Family affiliation

According to the historical and genealogical classification of Hoernle, in 1880, the NIA languages can be classified into four groups - 'Northern' (Nepali, Kumauni and Garhwali), 'Western Hindi' under which he placed Marwari and 'Eastern Rajputani', Punjabi including 'Multani', 'Sindhi' and 'Gujarati', 'Southern' ('Marathi' and 'Konkani') and 'Eastern' (Bengali, Oriya and 'Eastern Hindi'). By 'Eastern Hindi' he meant Bhojpuri with Maithili and Magadhi and also Awadhi (Baiswari). According to Hoernle Awadhi was mixed up with 'Western Hindi.'



Grierson subdivided the New Indo Aryan languages as per the following tree diagram in which Awadhi falls under Eastern Hindi. It is explained in the table below.



ii. Location

As per 2011 Census, the total number of Awadhi speakers are 38, 50,906. Uttar Pradesh records the highest number of Awadhi speakers which is 38, 01,743, followed by NCT of Delhi,

Haryana, Rajasthan, Maharashtra, Jharkhand, Chhattisgarh, Uttarakhand, Madhya Pradesh, Chandigarh, Gujarat and Punjab. In the remaining states Awadhi speakers are found in numbers less than one thousand.

As per 2011 Census, Sultanpur records the highest number of Awadhi speakers which is 8,88,371 followed by Gonda, Basti, Faizabad and Ambedkar Nagar. Awadhi speakers are also recorded from the remaining districts in lesser numbers.

The present report is based on the data collected from an informant named Kalpana Yadav. She is an original resident of Maharua village of Ambedkar Nagar district of Uttar Pradesh state.

iii. Speakers' Strength

The table exemplifying the Rural - Urban break up of Awadhi speakers in India and its States, as well as in Uttar Pradesh and its districts is given below.

India and States

India & States	Total	Rural	Urban
India	38,50,906	37,31,591	1,19,315
Uttar Pradesh	38,01,743	37,15,556	86,187
Nct of Delhi	12,809	171	12,638
Haryana	8,682	4,804	3,878
Rajasthan	7,351	5,630	1,721
Maharashtra	3,579	186	3,393
Jharkhand	3,203	289	2,914
Chhattisgarh	2,884	911	1,973
Uttarakhand	2,754	1,692	1,062
Madhya Pradesh	2,259	1,034	1,225
Chandigarh	1,381	15	1,366
Gujarat	1,233	132	1,101
Punjab	1,132	329	803
Himachal pradesh	522	290	232
Bihar	373	223	150
Jammu & Kashmir	214	130	84
Dadra & Nagar Haveli	126	16	110
West Bengal	121	11	110
Arunachal Pradesh	117	41	76
Daman & Diu	68	1	67
Karnataka	53	7	46
Assam	49	44	5

Nagaland	46	28	18
Goa	44	1	43
Andhra Pradesh	42	-	42
Kerala	30	1	29
Manipur	18	9	9
Meghalaya	17	10	7
Odisha	16	12	4
Sikkim	13	7	6
Andaman&Nicobar Islands	12	6	6
Tamil Nadu	11	3	8
Mizoram	2	1	1
Tripura	1	-	1
Puducherry	1	1	-

District Level Population of Uttar Pradesh

State/District	Total	Rural	Urban
Uttar Pradesh	38,01,743	37,15,556	86,187
Sultanpur	8,88,371	8,74,320	14,051
Gonda	5,50,776	5,42,931	7,845
Basti	3,52,135	3,46,301	5,834
Faizabad	3,33,602	3,14,818	18,784
Ambedkar Nagar	2,56,822	2,50,630	6,192
Lambhua	2,41,115	2,40,223	892
Colonelganj	2,34,202	2,29,944	4,258
Basti	2,14,683	2,08,853	5,830
Sant Ravidas Nagar (Bhadohi)	2,05,357	1,97,054	8,303
Pratapgarh	1,93,030	1,92,054	976
Bikapur	1,86,089	1,79,808	6,281
Balrampur	1,85,050	1,82,209	2,841
Jaisinghpur	1,48,205	1,48,205	-
Rae Bareli	1,37,411	1,35,611	1,800
Kadipur	1,35,450	1,32,418	3,032
Gonda	1,34,917	1,33,007	1,910
Amethi	1,34,244	1,32,908	1,336
Shrawasti	1,24,837	1,23,149	1,688
Siddharthnagar	1,18,109	1,16,462	1,647
Tulsipur	1,17,008	1,14,295	2,713
Gauriganj	1,16,135	1,16,135	-
Allahabad	1,10,468	1,07,670	2,798
Gyanpur	1,06,915	1,01,605	5,310

Mankapur	1,03,011	1,02,010	1,001
Ikauna	89,180	87,594	1,586
Bhadohi	81,152	78,159	2,993
Tarabganj	78,646	77,970	676
Jaunpur	77,640	77,638	2
Harraiya	73,346	73,342	4
Tanda	71,823	70,761	1,062
Akbarpur	70,264	65,895	4,369
Bara Banki	68,876	68,218	658
Musafirkhana	67,272	65,219	2,053
Faizabad	66,080	53,591	12,489
Itwa	65,158	63,875	1,283
Bahraich	63,380	60,993	2,387
Bhiti	61,973	61,973	-
Bhanpur	61,819	61,819	-
Phulpur	59,973	59,123	850
Patti	57,317	57,317	-
Kunda	57,267	57,267	-
Rae Bareli	46,961	45,694	1,267
Sultanpur	45,950	39,212	6,738
Milkipur	45,079	45,079	-
Lalganj	43,786	43,786	-
Utraula	43,730	43,691	39
Haidergarh	39,028	38,456	572
Azamgarh	38,206	37,701	505
Sitapur	37,297	34,355	2,942
Bhinga	35,657	35,555	102
Tiloi	34,124	34,124	-
Soraon	33,959	33,942	17
Sohawal	32,309	32,295	14
Maharajganj	32,270	31,737	533
Kaiserganj	27,307	26,581	726
Nanpara	26,768	26,766	2
Allapur	26,398	26,398	-
Jalalpur	26,364	25,603	761
Phulpur	25,535	25,535	-
Mahmudabad	25,260	22,318	2,942
Balrampur	24,312	24,223	89
Shohratgarh	23,975	23,961	14
Pratapgarh	22,931	21,955	976
Salon	21,418	21,418	-

Machhlishahr	21,326	21,326	-
Mariahu	20,777	20,777	-
Jaunpur	17,445	17,443	2
Aurai	17,290	17,290	-
Bansi	15,804	15,596	208
Banda	11,991	11,986	5
Naraini	11,947	11,947	-
Raniganj	11,729	11,729	-
Ramsanehighat	11,123	11,089	34
Lucknow	10,881	9,609	1,272
Burhanpur	9,854	9,370	484
Badlapur	9,348	9,348	-
Domariyaganj	8,863	8,863	-
Fatehpur	7,437	7,437	-
Shahganj	7,304	7,304	-
Misrikh	7,300	7,300	-
Handia	7,211	7,211	-
Bahraich	6,521	4,862	1,659
Kheri	6,124	6,118	6
Chitrakoot	5,633	3,223	2,410
Bakshi Ka Talab	5,606	5,507	99
Sant Kabir Nagar	5,266	5,266	-
Nawabganj	4,963	4,911	52
Sirauli Gauspur	4,754	4,754	-
Sonbhadra	4,656	4,373	283
Mau	4,573	2,260	2,313
Robertsganj	4,435	4,366	69
Mirzapur	4,349	4,345	4
Naugarh	4,309	4,167	142
Chunar	4,273	4,269	4
Rudauli	4,045	4,045	-
Meja	4,033	4,033	-
Dhaurahara	4,001	4,001	-
Unnao	3,575	3,473	102
Lucknow	2,914	1,741	1,173
Mahasi	2,784	2,784	-
Allahabad	2,778	849	1,929
Rudhauili	2,287	2,287	-
Malihabad	2,217	2,217	-
Ghanghata	2,149	2,149	-
Mehnagar	2,143	2,143	-

Khalilabad	2,015	2,015	-
Mahrajganj	1,871	1,871	-
Sitapur	1,833	1,833	-
Unchahar	1,579	1,579	-
Laharpur	1,577	1,577	-
Ramnagar	1,571	1,571	-
Maharajganj	1,555	1,555	-
Safipur	1,543	1,441	102
Kerakat	1,440	1,440	-
Karchhana	1,404	1,402	2
Kaushambi	1,199	1,199	-
Mehdawal	1,102	1,102	-
Karwi	1,060	963	97
Chail	966	966	0
Gola Gokaran Nath	957	957	0
Koraon	899	899	0
Ghaziabad	847	11	836
Hasanganj	835	835	0
Ghaziabad	832	0	832
Unnao	804	804	0
Lalganj	739	739	0
Hamirpur	683	386	297
Hamirpur	681	384	297
Sidhauli	664	664	0
Biswan	663	663	0
Chandauli	636	630	6
Chakia	630	630	0
Nizamabad	588	588	0
Varanasi	564	152	412
Varanasi	554	142	412
Kanpur Nagar	544	0	544
Kanpur	544	0	544
Mohammdi	434	434	0
Hardoi	421	421	0
Sandila	421	421	0
Purwa	393	393	0
Gautam Buddha Nagar	370	0	370
Dadri	364	0	364
Dalmau	320	320	0
Nautanwa	316	316	0
Palia	267	267	0

Lakhimpur	251	245	6
Nighasan	214	214	0
Bara	211	211	0
Mohanlalganj	144	144	0
Muzaffarnagar	128	128	0
Kairana	126	126	0
Ghorawal	126	7	119
Mathura	122	36	86
Manjhanpur	117	117	0
Sirathu	116	116	0
Dudhi	95	0	95
Chhata	90	6	84
Mirzapur	76	76	0
Deoria	72	7	65
Deoria	70	5	65
Lalganj	65	65	0
Ghazipur	61	58	3
Aligarh	59	12	47
Koil	57	10	47
Agra	53	0	53
Saidpur	49	49	0
Gorakhpur	37	18	19
Banda	29	29	0
Gorakhpur	25	6	19
Jalaun	23	22	1
Bulandshahr	22	11	11
Azamgarh	21	0	21
Rampur	20	18	2
Bilaspur	18	18	0
Mathura	18	16	2
Kalpi	18	18	0
Meerut	16	0	16
Meerut	16	0	16
Baghpat	16	16	0
Baraut	16	16	0
Bareilly	16	4	12
Debai	15	4	11
Mat	14	14	0
Kushinagar	14	10	4
Jhansi	13	0	13
Firozabad	12	12	0

Firozabad	12	12	0
Hapur	10	6	4
Padrauna	10	6	4
Pindra	10	10	0
Saharanpur	9	0	9
Saharanpur	9	0	9
Budaun	9	0	9
Bareilly	9	3	6
Lalitpur	9	1	8
Mau	9	0	9
Maunath Bhanjan	9	0	9
Auraiya	8	8	0
Bidhuna	8	8	0
Jhansi	8	0	8
Lalitpur	8	0	8
Atarra	8	3	5
Moradabad	7	0	7
Baberu	7	7	0
Khajni	7	7	0
Ballia	7	7	0
Gautam Buddha Nagar	6	0	6
Sikandrabad	6	6	0
Baheri	6	0	6
Etawah	6	1	5
Ballia	6	6	0
Zamania	6	6	0
Chandauli	6	0	6
Moradabad	5	0	5
Garhmukteshwar	5	5	0
Mahamaya Nagar	5	2	3
Sahaswan	5	0	5
Etawah	5	0	5
Moth	5	0	5
Budaun	4	0	4
Sahjanwa	4	4	0
Hata	4	4	0
Etah	4	4	0
Jalesar	4	4	0
Hathras	3	0	3
Jalaun	3	3	0
Mahoba	3	1	2

Ghazipur	3	1	2
Mohammadabad	3	2	1
Sambhal	2	0	2
Rampur	2	0	2
Gabhana	2	2	0
Sadabad	2	2	0
Shahjahanpur	2	2	0
Kannauj	2	0	2
Tirwa	2	0	2
Mahoba	2	0	2
Muzaffarnagar	1	1	0
Budhana	1	1	0
Jyotiba Phule Nagar	1	0	1
Dhanaura	1	0	1
Anupshahr	1	1	0
Faridpur	1	1	0
Shahjahanpur	1	1	0
Jalalabad	1	1	0
Bharthana	1	1	0
Madhogarh	1	0	1
Orai	1	1	0
Talbehat	1	1	0
Sarila	1	1	0
Maudaha	1	1	0
Charkhari	1	1	0
Chauri Chaura	1	1	0
Rudrapur	1	1	0
Barhaj	1	1	0
Rasra	1	1	0
Kanshiram Nagar	1	1	0
Patiyali	1	1	0

IV. Bilingualism

The children of the area mostly study in Hindi medium schools. Most Awadhi speakers are able to speak Bhojpuri as well. Awadhi is written in Devanagari script.

Khabar Lahariya and Amar ujwala are the names of two newspapers in Awadhi. The language variety is not used in mass media, administration and courts.

The speakers speak Awadhi among themselves at home and among relatives. In the district Headquarters people talk more in Awadhi. In the larger urban areas like Lucknow and Allahabad there is mostly a mixture of Awadhi and Hindi.

A speaker of Braj Bhasha can make himself intelligible to an Awadhi speaker. If he resides among the Awadhi speakers, he will easily adopt the Awadhi language and at the same time retain his original dialects.

2. PHONOLOGY

Phonology is the study of how sounds are organized and used in natural languages. The phonological system of a language includes an inventory of sounds, their features and rules which specify how sounds interact with each other. Phonemic analysis helps in allotting all the indefinite number of sounds occurring in utterances to a definite and limited set of phonemes contrastive in at least some environment.

The phonological system of Awadhi is presented below based on the data collected from the informant of Uttar Pradesh during the field investigation.

A) Phonemic Inventory

Both the segmental and supra segmental phonemes of Awadhi are presented in the following inventory.

i. Segmental Phonemes

• Vowels

	Front	Central	Back
High	i		u
Mid	e	ə	o
Low	ε	a	ɔ

The long counterparts of the vowels are realised in the language. The long vowels are not phonemic.

• Consonants

Consonant Chart															
	Bilabia l		Labio - dental		Denta l		Alveola r	Retrofle x		Palata l		Velar		Glottal	
	Vl	vd	v l	v d	v l	v d		vl	vd			vl	v d	v l	vd
Plosive	P	b			t	d		ʈ	ɖ			k	g		
	p ^h	b ^h			t ^h	d ^h		ʈ ^h	ɖ ^h			k _h	g ^h		
Affricate											c	ʃ			
					c _h	ʃ ^h									
Nasal		m				n			ɳ				ŋ		

Flap/Tap					ɾ		ɽ			
Fricative			s							h
Approximant		ʋ					j			
Lateral approximant					l					

- **Syllable**

A syllable is the minimum unit of pronunciation. It is made up of a syllable nucleus (i.e., vowel) with optional initial and final margins (i.e., consonants). A syllable which ends with a vowel is called open syllable whereas a syllable ending in a consonant is called closed syllable. Both open and closed syllables are found in Awadhi. Monosyllables exhibit the basic syllable structure of a language. In this language the basic syllabic structures are CVC and CV. Occasionally a few other forms like VC and CVCC are noticed.

Syllabic Pattern:

Again, the words of this language may be monosyllabic, disyllabic and trisyllabic. Tetra syllabic words are found, but not as frequently.

- **Monosyllabic Pattern:** A monosyllabic word contains a single syllable.

CVC	/g ^h ər/	'house'
VC	/os/	'dew'
CV	/lu/	'loo wind'

- **Disyllabic Pattern:** A disyllabic word contains two syllables.

CVC-CV	/ʃ ^h ər - na/	'fountain'
CVC-CVC	/cət - tan/	'cliff'
CV - CV	/tara/	'star'
CV-CVC	/ki - rən/	'ray, light'
CVC- CV	/ʃ ^h ər - na/	'waterfall'

- **Trisyllabic Pattern:** A trisyllabic word contains three syllables.

CV-CVC-CVC	/b ^h u-vən-dər/	'cyclone'
CV-CV-CV	/ku-ha-sa/	'mist'
CCV-CV-CV	/sri-mə-ti/	'Mrs'

- **Tetra Syllabic Pattern:** A tetrasyllabic word contains four syllables.

VC-CCV-CV-CVC	/in-drə- d ^h ə-nus/	'rainbow'
CV-CV-CV-CV	/nə-kə-ra-ni/	'maid'
CV-CV-CVC-CV	/mə-d ^h u-mək-k ^h i/	'bee'
CV-CVC-CVC-CV	/lə-kər-bəg-g ^h a/	'hyena'

Awadhi words contain both open and closed syllables.

Examples of open syllables are such shown below

CV	/b ^h ɔ̃/	'eyebrow'
CCV-CV	/pja-se/	'thirsty'
CVC-CV	/kol-hu/	'crusher'
CVC-CV	/cək-ki/	'grinder made of stone or wood'
CVC-CV	/pəl-lu/	'pleat of saree'

Examples of closed syllables are such as in

CV- CVC	/sə-rab/	'liquor'
CV- CVC	/b ^h o-ʃən/	'meal'
CVCC	/səŋk/	'shell'
CVC	/maɾ/	'beer (rice)'
CV-CVCC	/sikənd/	'wrinkle'

ii. Major Allophonic Distribution

Allophones are positional variants within the same phonemic status. /r/ and /l/ tend to vary freely in Awadhi as in

/sara/	'wife's brother (elder, younger)'
as also in	
/sala/	'wife's brother (elder, younger)'

iii. Phonemic Description and Distribution

The description and distribution of eight vowel phonemes in Awadhi are presented below

- Vowels

/i/ High front unrounded vowel. It occurs in all three positions - initial, medial and final.

/ilajci/	‘cardamom’
/kirəŋ/	‘ray’
/ʔəldi kəra/	‘soon’

/e/ High mid front unrounded vowel, occurs initially, medially and finally.

/ek or baɽe/	‘partiality’
/ketəki/	‘a type of flower’
/isara kəra tʰəue/	‘to signal’

/ɛ/ Open-mid front unrounded vowel, occurs medially only.

/bɛgva kʰola/	‘to open (a bag)’
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/a/ Low central unrounded vowel, occurs initially, medially and finally.

/akas/	‘sky’
/kuhasa/	‘mist’
/ʔhərna/	‘waterfall’

/ə/ Mean mid central unrounded vowel, occurs initially, medially and finally.

/ənət/	‘orphan’
/bʰəvər/	‘whirlpool’
/səɽon ka peɽ/	‘teak tree’

/ɔ/ Open-mid back rounded vowel, occurs medially and finally.

/səɽon ka peɽ/	‘teak tree’
/bʰɔ/	‘eyebrow’

/o/ Close-mid back rounded vowel, occurs initially, medially and finally.

/dai: or/	‘right side’
/dʰola/	‘caterpillar’
/kəuno na kəuno tərah/	‘somehow’

/u/ High back rounded vowel, occurs initially, medially and finally.

/un//u/	‘those’
/d ^h ur/	‘dust’
/ʈapu/	‘island’

- Consonants

/p/ Bilabial voiceless unaspirated stop. It occurs initially, medially and finally.

/pətt ^h ər/	‘stone’
/ʈapu/	‘island’
/sap/	‘cobra’

/p^h/ Bilabial voiceless aspirated stop. It occurs initially, medially and finally.

/p ^h ənda/	‘trap for animals’
/tup ^h an/	‘cyclone’
/kəp ^h /	‘mucuos’

/b/ Bilabial voiced unaspirated stop. It occurs in all three positions.

/bimari/	‘illnesses’
/taba/	‘bell or metal’
/k ^h ərab/	‘idle’

/b^h/ Bilabial voiced aspirated stop. It occurs in all three positions.

/b ^h ʌ/	‘eyebrow’
/pəlb ^h ər/	‘moment’
/gərb ^h nal/	‘umbilical cord’

/t/ Dental voiceless unaspirated stop. It occurs initially, medially and finally.

/tis/	‘thirty’
/səsta/	‘cheap’
/kimət/	‘price’

/t^h/ Dental voiceless aspirated stop. It occurs initially, medially and finally.

/t ^h ali/	‘plate’
/ənat ^h ni/	‘female orphan’
/rət ^h /	‘chariot’

/d/ Dental voiced unaspirated stop. It occurs initially, medially and finally.

/dusri aurət/	‘co-wife’
/pərda/	‘curtain’
/bərgəd kə peɾ/	‘banyan tree’

/dʰ/ Dental voiced aspirated stop. It occurs in all three positions.

/dʰur/	‘dust’
/gədhə/	‘asses’
/judʰ/	‘war’

/ɖ/ Retroflex voiceless unaspirated stop. It occurs initially, medially and finally.

/ɖɪɖɖa/	‘grasshopper’
/cəɖɖan/	‘cliff’
/kəɖɖ/	‘gizzard of birds’

/ɖʰ/ Retroflex voiceless aspirated stop. It occurs initially and medially.

/ɖʰusa tʰəue/	‘to push into’
/koɖʰri/	‘bedroom’

/ɖ/ Retroflex voiced unaspirated stop. It occurs in all three positions.

/ɖəɾəuna/	‘terrible’
/andə sena/	‘to hatch egg’
/gʰəmənd/	‘proud’

/ɖʰ/ Retroflex voiced aspirated stop. It occurs word initially only.

/ɖʰao/	‘shit’
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/k/ Velar voiceless unaspirated stop. It occurs initially, medially and finally.

/kuhasa/	‘mist’
/ləiki/	‘girl’
/malik/	‘master’

/kʰ/ Velar voiceless aspirated stop. It occurs in all three positions.

/kʰərgos/	‘hare’
/pəŋkʰa/	‘hand fan’

/səŋk^h/ 'couch'

/g/ Velar voiced unaspirated stop. It occurs initially, medially and finally.

/gərhəŋ/ 'eclipse'

/murga/ 'cock'

/ʃ^hag/ 'foam'

/g^h/ Velar voiced aspirated stop. It occurs initially and medially.

/g^həməndʒi/ 'mistresses'

/ləkərbəgg^ha/ 'hyena'

/m/ Bilabial voiced unaspirated nasal. It occurs in all three positions.

/malik/ 'master'

/sriman sriməti/ 'Mr. & Mrs.'

/resəm kiʃ/ 'silk bug'

/n/ Dental voiced unaspirated nasal. It occurs in all three positions.

/nəh/ 'fingernail'

/p^hənda/ 'trap for animals'

/p^hən/ 'cobra's hood'

/ŋ/ Retroflex voiced unaspirated nasal. It occurs medially and finally.

/uk^həŋau/ 'wooden sandals'

/gərhəŋ/ 'eclipse'

/ŋ/ Velar voiced unaspirated nasal. It occurs medially and finally.

/ləŋgur/ 'baboon'

/ləʃiŋ/ 'toilet'

/ɾ/, /ɽ/ Alveolar voiceless flap/tap. It occurs initially, medially and finally.

/ɾəʃai:/ 'quilt'

/əruɪ/ 'arum'

/kivər/ 'shutter'

/ɽ/	Retroflex voiceless flap/tap. It occurs medially and finally.
/keɽa kə peɽ/	‘banana tree’
/moɽ/	‘fold’
/s/	Dental voiceless sibilant. It occurs in all three positions.
/suhani rat ba/	‘moonlight’
/dusri aurət/	‘co-wife’
/indrə d ^h ənus/	‘rainbow’
/h/	Velar voiced fricative. It occurs in all three positions.
/həklana/	‘stammerer’
/nəihər/	‘mother’s father’s house’
/nəh/	‘fingernail’
/c/	Palatal voiceless unaspirated affricate. It occurs initially, medially and finally.
/cəlɳi/	‘to sift flour’
/nice/	‘down’
/ədd ^h jən kəc/	‘study room’
/c ^h /	Palatal voiceless aspirated affricate. It occurs initially, medially and finally.
/c ^h ət/	‘terrace’
/məc ^h uhara/	‘fisherman’
/kuc ^h /	‘few’
/ʃ/	Palatal voiced unaspirated affricate. It occurs in all three positions.
/ʃəjʃat/	‘wealth’
/məʃedar ba/	‘funny’
/ənəʃ/	‘grain’
/ʃ ^h /	Palatal voiced aspirated affricate. It occurs initially and medially.
/ʃ ^h uləs gəe/	‘to burn lightly’
/ulʃ ^h a hua bal/	‘matted hair’
/l/	Alveolar voiced lateral. It occurs initially, medially and finally.
/lada/	‘load a vehicle or animal’
/ʃ ^h əlua/	‘sling’

/k^hal/ 'skin an animal'

/j/ Palatal approximant. It occurs medially and finally.

/p^həjlət ba/ 'to spread'
/g^his gəj/ 'become worn out'

/ʋ/ Labio-dental approximant. It occurs initially, medially and finally.

/d^hava bol dena/ 'attack'
/həva deta/ 'to fan'
/g^hav b^hər gəil/ 'heal a wound'

The alveolars, marked /t/ and /d/ are very rare here. One or two occurrences like /Dər/ 'fear' and /leti gəwa/ 'laid down' are found.

iv. Clusters

A cluster is formed by two identical or non-identical phonemes. Both vowel and consonant clusters are realized in Awadhi.

• Vowel Clusters

Vowel Clusters refer to more than one adjacent vowel sounds occurring within a word. There are some vowel clusters realized in Awadhi language. When two vowel sequences are pronounced in a single syllable then it is called a diphthong.

Initial	Medial	Final
/ai/	/əʃvain/ 'ajowan'	/kai/ 'mosses'
/ia/ /duba dia/ 'dip into drunk'	/pias/ 'thirst'	/k ^h ətia/ 'bedstead'
/au/ /dusri aurət/ 'co-wife'	/b ^h auʃi/ 'brother's wife'	/uk ^h ən/ 'wooden sandals'
/əi/ /əila/ 'to come'	/ləiki/ 'girl'	/pələt gəi/ 'rebounded'
/əj/ /jehi səməj/ 'meanwhile'	/b ^h əjsa/ 'bison'	/g ^h isgəj/ 'to be come exhausted'

/əu/	/kəuʋa/	'crow'	
/ua/	/duar/	'gate'	/tendua/ 'panther'
/əj/	/p ^h əjleria/	'elephantiasis'	/surəj muk ^{hi} / 'sunflower'
/ja/	/jatra kəra/	'to travel'	/dəjala/ 'a merciful person' /dəja/ 'pity'

- **Consonants Clusters**

A consonant combination is a group of consonants which have no intervening vowel. In Awadhi there are two types of consonant combinations (a) Heterogeneous consonant clusters and (b) Homogenous consonant sequence.

- **Heterogeneous Consonant Clusters**

It is a group of two or more than two different consonants which have no intervening vowel. In this language we find a very few examples of heterogeneous consonant clusters. For example,

- **Fricative (sibilant) + Flap/Tap**

/s/	+	/ɾ/	=	/sɾ/	/sciman/	'Mr'
/s/	+	/ɾ /	=	/sɾ/	/scimati/	'Mrs'

- **Velar Nasal + Stop**

/ŋ/	+	/g/	=	/ŋg/	/gungga/	'deaf-mute'
/ŋ/	+	/k/	=	/ŋk/	/dʒəŋk/	'sting of a scorpion'

- **Nasal + Retroflex**

/n/	+	/ɭ/	=	/nɭ/	/kənɭ/	'gizzard of birds'
/n/	+	/ɖ/	=	/nɖ/	/mandɭ /	'freshly cooked rice foam'

- **Nasal + Dental Stop**

/n/	+	/d/	=	/nd/	/sikand/	'wrinkle'
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- Nasal + Palatal Affricate

/n/ + /c/ = /nc/ /benc/ 'benc'

- Dental Stop+ Flap

/t/ + /r/ = /tr/ /c^hetriə ʒəɾ/ 'areal root'

- Flap + Velar Stop

/ɾ/ + /k^h/ = /rk^h/ /cərk^ha/ 'spinning wheel'

- Velar stop + Flap

/g/ + /ɾ/ = /gr/ /bəndəɾ grəha/ 'port/harbour'

- Lateral + Velar stop

/l/ + /k/ = /lk/ /sulk/ 'fee'

- Flap + Palatal Affricate

/ɾ/ + /ʃ/ = /ɾʃ/ /kəɾʃ cukava/ 'repay (a loan)'

➤ Homogeneous Consonant Clusters

It is a group of two or more than two similar consonants which have no intervening vowel. In this language we find a very few examples of homogeneous consonant clusters. For example,

/ləttu nəcava/	'spin (a top)'
/k ^h ərrat ^h a le t ^h əvə/	'to snore'
/rəpp ^h u kəɾa t ^h əvə/	'patch (cloth)'

Nasalisation

Nasalisation is a way of pronouncing sounds characterized by resonance produced through the nose in course of which the velum is lowered, so that some air escapes through the nose during the production of the sound by the mouth

Nasalized vowels are present but they are not phonemic.

3. MORPHOPHONEMICS

Morphophonemics, in linguistics, is the study of the relationship between morphology and phonology. Morphophonemics involves an investigation of the phonological variations within morphemes, usually marking different grammatical functions.

- **Fricativization**

A sound becomes fricative in some particular environment.

/ləika alsɪ ba/	‘The boy is lazy’
/ləiki alsɪ va/	‘The girl is lazy’

/ba/ is sometimes being fricativized into /va/ by assimilation across morpheme boundary.

4. MORPHOLOGY

Morphology deals with structure of words and their declensional pattern as well as verbs and their conjugational pattern.

Word class

A word is the smallest unit having independent semantic or pragmatic content in isolation. A word may be a morpheme or combination of free and bound morphemes. Word class may be either open or closed. In Awadhi, we have the following word classes.

Based on morphological and syntactical structure the word classes of Awadhi are divided into following classes,

Noun

A noun is a part of speech which denotes the name of places, objects, persons. It is a naming word. In Saussurean terms, it is the signifier denoting the signified. It is a symbol denoting or referring to an object in the real world.

/nədi/	'river'
/kutta/	'dog'
/g ^h ər/	'house'

Pronoun

A grammatical component referring to the noun and functions as an anaphoric or deictic category.

/i/	'this' as in	/i ek kutta ba/	'This is a dog.'
/həmar/	'my' as in	/həmar g ^h ər c ^h oṭa hə/	'My house is small.'
/həmre/	'my' as in	/həmre pas do c ^h oṭa g ^h ər ba/	'I have two small houses.'

Adjective

An adjective qualifies a noun, noun phrases and provides additional details about it.

/həmre pas do c^hoṭa g^hər ba/ 'I have two small houses.'

/do/ = adjective of quantity

/c^hoṭa/= adjective of quality

/i du bərki gari ba/ 'These are two big carts.'

/du/ = adjective of quantity

/ bərki/= adjective of quality

Postposition

A part of speech placed after noun or pronoun in a sentence to refer to its position or relation with it. The postposition is /pas/ 'with' in the sentence below.

/həmre pas do c^hoTa g^hər ba/
I - gen with two small house is
'I have two small houses.'

There are three postpositions in the sentence below. They are ke - the genitive marker, pas - near and se - from.

/iskul ke pas se ava/
School-Gen near from come
'Come from near the school'

The postposition is /se/ 'from' in the sentence below.

/iskule se 'ava/
School from come
'Come from school'

Verb

A verb is an action word- a Parts of Speech which is inflected for person, number and tense and it signifies activity or process.

/nisana ləgana/ 'aim at (of gun, arrow etc.)'
/upər k^hica/ 'pull oneself up'

Conjunction

A conjunction connects words, phrases, clauses or sentences together. In this language conjunctions are / ɔur/ 'and', / lekin / 'but'.

Participle

A participle is a lexical item which is itself an inflected form of verb denotes adjective depending on the sentences it is used. This word class is not found here.

Interjection

An interjection is a form, typically brief, such as one syllable or word, which is applied frequently as an exclamation or part of an exclamation. In this language interjection is not used according to the data.

The nine-word classes stated above are broadly grouped into two categories

- i. Declinable and
- ii. Indeclinable.

Declinables are those which are declined for number, gender, person, for example, nouns, pronouns, adjectives and verbs. The Indeclinables are postpositions, conjunctions, adverbs, participles and interjections.

A) Noun Morphology

Noun Morphology deals with the nominal and pronominal forms and classifies them along with their declensional and inflectional affixes in association with Gender, Number, and Case etc. In this connection, we will discuss here the following aspects which the nouns of this language exhibit: two numbers (singular and plural), two genders (masculine and feminine), and seven cases (nominative, accusative, dative, ablative, genitive, locative and instrumental).

i) Gender

Gender is grammatical in Awadhi. The verb and adjective are inflected for masculine and feminine markers according to the noun.

By adding /-i/: In case of Feminine /-i/ is added in place of Masculine /-a/

Male	Gloss	Female	Gloss
/pər pota/	great-grand-son	/pər poti/	great-grand-daughter
/pər dada/	great-grand-father	/pər dadi/	great-grand-mother
/sətela beṭa/	step son	/səteli biṭia/	step daughter
/q ^h ora/	toothless (male)	/q ^h ori/	toothless (female)
/sriman/	mister	/srimati/	mistress

The adjective takes masculine or feminine markers according to the noun as is demonstrated in the examples below.

/du acc ^h a gao he/	‘There are two good villages’	/i kahani acc ^h i ba/	‘The story is good.’
/u ləmba ba/	‘He is tall.’	/u ləmbi ba/	‘She is tall’

In the examples above the adjectives / acc^ha/, / acc^hi/ change according to the gender of the nouns /gao/ (masculine) and /kahani/ (feminine). The predicative adjective /lamba/, /lambi/ also change according to whether the subject is male or female.

ii) Number

The nouns in Awadhi are marked by two numbers singular and plural.

/bəjl/	‘bull’	>	/bəjlən/	‘bulls’
/pətəija/	‘leaf’	>	/pətvən/	‘leaves’
/ləiki/	‘girl’	>	/ləikvən/	‘girls’

In this language number is not grammatically marked by adjective as in

/həriər pətəi:/	‘The green leaf’
/həriər pətəija/	‘The green leaves’
/kəria badər/	‘The dark cloud’
/kəria badər/	‘The dark clouds’

In this language number is grammatically marked by verbs as in

/i ek k ^h ərab gao ba/	‘This is a bad village’
/du k ^h ərab gao hen/	‘There are two bad villages’

iii) Case

The case defines the relationship between the noun and the predicate in a sentence. The case system of Awadhi is given below.

• Nominative Case

The nominative case generally marks the subject of a verb or the predicate noun. The Nominative case marker in Awadhi is ø.

/həm əpne karTua me həĩ/	‘I am in my cart.’
/tu ləikua ke dek ^h a/	‘You see the child’
/i həmar kam na ba/	‘It is not my work.’

/həm/, /tu/ and /i/ are in the nominative case with ø case marker.

- **Accusative Case**

Accusative case of a noun is used to receive the direct objects of transitive verbs.

/mu cor ke dek ^h le həĩ/	‘I have seen the poor’
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/-ke/ is the accusative case markers of the direct objects / cor/.

- **Instrumental Case**

This case is used to denote instrument with which the action is performed.

/dour q ^h ore ke dvara ki jat he/	‘Running is done by the horse’
--	--------------------------------

Instrumental case marker is /- ke dvara/

/i kam ka upjog c ^h ətrən dvara kəil gəi/	‘This book is used by the students’
--	-------------------------------------

Instrumental case marker is /dvara/

- **Dative Case**

The dative case designates the indirect object of a transitive verb. Nouns having the role of recipient (as of things given), beneficiary of an action, or possessor of an item are datives. The dative case marker is /-ke/

/sərkə gəribən ke pəise det he/	‘The Government gives money to the poor’
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- **Ablative Case**

A case that expresses movement of the subject or the object from one place to another either at the spatial plane or at the temporal plane is expressed by the ablative case. The ablative case is marked by ‘se’ in Awadhi.

/kəl se Tren cələl suru hoi:/	‘The train will start running from tomorrow’
/məngər ad ^h i rati se bəsən kə cələl bənd ^h ho gəil/	‘From Tuesday midnight the buses stopped plying’

- **Genitive Case**

This case expresses the meaning of belonging to or possession of something by the subject.

/u həmre babuʃi he/	‘He is my father’
/u həmar ləika ba/	‘He is my son’
/həmmre du ləika hʊvə/	‘I have two sons’
/ukər ləika/	‘His son’
/tuhaar ləikuən aɣə he/	‘Your sons have come ‘

The genitive case markers are /-re/, /-ar/ and /-ər/.

- **Locative Case**

Locative case is a case that expresses location at the referent of the noun it marks. The location of the subject or object is expressed by the locative case marker. The locative case is marked by the postposition /me/.

/həmar ləikva ɡʰəra me ba/	‘My son is in the house’
/unkər ləikuən ɡʰəra me baɟe/	‘His sons are in the house’

Nouns in Awadhi can be put under the following headings as well

- **Internal structure**

Nouns in Awadhi can be categorized into two broad classes, namely

1. Basic Nouns and
2. Derived nouns.

a) Basic Nouns

These nouns are not derived from any other word class. The examples are

/ʃʰərna/	‘fountain’
/tupʰan/	‘cyclone’
/bʰuʊəndəɾ/	‘whirl wind’
/bəɾəf/	‘snow’

The basic nouns can further be divided into Countable and Uncountable Nouns.

b) Countable Nouns

Count nouns are those which can take some suffixes for indicating plurality.

/ləiki/	'girl'
/aurət/	'woman'
/b ^h əjsa/	'bison'
/bəjl/	'bullock'

c) Uncountable Nouns

The grammatical category in which the entities cannot be counted

/əp ^h im/	'opium'
/mand/	'freshly cooked rice foam'
/un/	'wool'

d) Inanimate Nouns

The nouns denoting the non-human aspect of the life.

/pərkas de t ^h əvə/	'flash'
/god/	'gum'
/ʃal/	'net'
/citrə/	'painting'

e) Animate Nouns

The living world represents the animate nouns.

/kəlakar/	'artist'
/silpəkar/	'artisan'
/məhavət/	'elephant driver'
/məc ^h uhara/	'fisherman'
/teli/	'oilman'

f) Human Nouns

The human class as a whole represents the human noun.

/bəcca/	'child'
/ləika/	'boy'

g) Non- Human Nouns

The animals or things comes under this category of nouns.

/bəjl/	'bullock'
/murga/	'chicken'

/sap/	'snake'
/tɪdɖa/	'grasshopper'

The Awadhi nouns are inflected for Gender, Number, and Case. Grammatical number is present in this language. Awadhi nouns exhibit 7 different case functions (nominative, accusative, dative, ablative, genitive, locative and instrumental). The following description gives the details of Awadhi gender, number and case system.

B) Pronoun

Pronoun is a class of word which can be placed in place of noun. It can take number, gender and case markers like the noun. The functional difference between a noun and a pronoun is that a pronoun cannot take any determiner. A pronoun can be used in all persons. A noun can be used only in the third person.

Awadhi has the following types of pronouns.

1. Personal Pronoun
2. Demonstrative Pronoun
3. Interrogative Pronoun
4. Indefinite Pronoun
5. Reflexive Pronoun

1. Personal Pronoun

In Awadhi, the system of personal pronouns distinguishes between three persons and in number the distinction is between singular and plural. There is no dual number. The pronoun for 1st person singular as well as 1st person plural is /həm/. There is a distinction in pronominal form between 2nd person singular as well as 2nd person plural - /tu/ and /ap/. The form for both 3rd person singular and 3rd person plural is /u/.

/həm/	'I'
/həmre pas du kitab ba/	'I have two books'
/həm/	'We'
/həm ɪhvi rukə tʰəi/	'We stop here.'
/tu//ap/	'you'
/tu həmkə dekʰa tʰəva/	'You see me.'
/u/	'he', 'she'
/u ũha ʃatʰe/	'He goes there.'
/u ũha ʃat həi/	'She goes there.'

/u/	‘they’
/u tohke dek ^h ət he/	‘They see you.’

2. Demonstrative Pronoun

The demonstrative pronouns, in Awadhi are mainly /i/ and /u/. Usage of /u/ can be shown both as personal pronoun and demonstrative pronouns. Demonstrative Pronouns of /u/ are as in /u ləiki/ ‘that girl’ and /u purus/ ‘those men.’

/i/	‘this’
/i/	‘it’
/i uca ba/	‘It is tall.’
/i admi anhər ba/	‘This man is blind.’
/u/	‘that’
/u ləiki ĩha ba/	‘That girl is here.’
/i/	‘these’
/həmke i pāc kitabe pəsənd ba/	‘I like these five books.’
/u/	‘those’
/u purus ləmba ho t ^h en/	‘Those men are tall.’

3. Interrogative Pronoun

Interrogative Pronouns are the question words like /ke/, /kəb/, /ka/ and /kəise/.

/ke/	‘who’
/həmre sat ^h ke ae/	‘Who will come with me?’
/kəb/	‘when’
/tu kəb ʃaiba/	‘When are you going?’
/ka/	‘what’
/tu ka kəhla/	‘What did you say?’
/kəise/	‘how’
/mu kəise boli/	‘How shall I speak?’

4. Indefinite Pronoun

This type of pronoun are used to indicate indefinite quantity of things or unspecified objects/things.

/kuc/	‘some’
/unke kuc pəisa cahi/	‘He wants some money’
/kehu/	‘anybody’
/i kam kehu b ^{hi} kər səkət he/	‘Anybody could do this work.’
/kehu/	‘nobody’
/i kam kehu na kər səkət he/	‘Nobody could do this work.’

5. Reflexive Pronoun

A reflexive pronoun is a pronoun that is preceded by the noun which it refers (its antecedent) within the same clause. A reflexive pronoun is an anaphor that must be bound by its antecedent in its local domain.

/k^{hud}/ is used to designate reflexivity in Awadhi.

/k ^{hud} /	‘self’
/i mu k ^{hud} bənəole rəhni/	‘I made it myself.’

C) Adjectives

An adjective is a word that modify nouns. An adjective specifies the properties or attributes of a noun referent. In this language adjectives occur before noun. But sometimes it occurs after nouns. There are three grammatical classes of adjectives in this language, namely

1. Attributive Adjective
2. Predicative Adjective
3. Derived Adjectives

1. Attributive Adjectives

Here the adjectives come before the nouns.

/i ek k ^h ubsurət gao ba/	‘This is a beautiful village’
/du acc ^h a gao he/	‘There are two good villages’
/i ek k ^h ərab gao ba/	‘This is a bad village’

The adjectives /k^hubsurət// acc^ha/ and /k^hərab/ are placed before the noun /gao/.

2. Predicative Adjective

These are linked via a copula or other connecting device to the noun or pronoun they modify. In these cases, adjectives occur in the predicate portion in a sentence.

/ləiki alsɪ ba/	‘The girl is lazy’
/bəcca kamcor ba/	‘The child is lazy’
/bəcva husjar ba/	‘The child is clever’

The adjectives /alsɪ/, /kamcor/ and /husjar/ occur in the predicate portions.

3. Derived Adjectives

In Awadhi some adjectives are found to have derived from verb and hence these may be termed as derived adjectives.

Semantically Awadhi adjectives can be categorized into three, namely

- i) Qualitative Adjectives
- ii) Quantitative Adjectives
- iii) Demonstrative Adjectives.

Qualitative Adjective

The adjectives which attribute a quality to the nouns are called qualitative adjectives.

/kəria badər/	‘The dark cloud’
/həriər pətəija/	‘The green leaves’
/bəre bəre gʰər/	‘The large houses’

The adjectives are /kəria /, /həriər/ and /bəre bəre/.

Quantitative Adjective

The adjectives which refer to the quantity of the nouns with which they occur are called Quantitative adjectives. In Awadhi the use of Quantitative adjectives are as follows:

/i ek kutta ba/	‘This is a dog’
/du kutta hə/	‘There are two dogs’
/i gaj hə/	‘This is a cow’

The adjectives are /i/ and /du/.

When the quantity is in indefinite unit followed by the attributed nouns. For example,

/unke kuc pəisa cahi/ ‘He wants some money.’

The adjective is /kuc/.

D) Numerals

Numerals is a word denoting a number is a grammatical category distinguishing between singular and plural. The numbers in Awadhi may be classified as Cardinals, Ordinals and Fractional.

Cardinals	Ordinals	Fractional
/ek/ ‘one’	/ek/ ‘first’	/ad ^h a/ ‘half’
/do/ ‘two’	/dui/ ‘second’	/dɛɾ/ ‘one and a half’
/tin/ ‘three’	/tin/ ‘third’	/d ^h ai/ ‘two and a half’
/car/ ‘four’		
/pāc/ ‘five’		
/c ^h e/ ‘six’		
/sat/ ‘seven’		
/at ^h / ‘eight’		
/nəo/ ‘nine’		
/dəs/ ‘ten’		

Formation of higher numerals

Higher numerals are formed by adding allomorphs of numerical units (1 to 9) to the allomorphs of base units (ten to ninety). Example:

/gya/	‘1’ +	/ra/	‘10’	>	/gyara/	‘eleven’
/pənd/	‘5’ +	/ra/	‘10’	>	/pəndra/	‘fifteen’
/ba/	‘2’ +	/is/	‘20’	>	/bais/	‘twenty-two’
/pəy/	‘5’ +	/tis/	‘30’	>	/pəytis/	‘thirty five’
/ek/	‘1’ +	/talis/	‘40’	>	/ektalis/	‘forty one’
/pəc/	‘5’ +	/pən/	‘50’	>	/pəcpən/	‘fifty-five’
/ek/	‘1’ +	/səɬ ^h /	‘60’	>	/eksəɬ ^h /	‘sixty one’
/pəy/	‘5’ +	/səɬ ^h /	‘60’	>	/pəysəɬ ^h /	‘sixty-five’
/pəcə/	‘5’ +	/həttəɾ/	‘70’	>	/pəcəhəttəɾ/	‘seventy five’
/pəc/	‘5’ +	/asi/	‘80’	>	/pəcasi/	‘eighty five’
/tin/	‘3’ +	/səo/	‘100’	>	/tinsəo/	‘three hundred’
/pāc/	‘5’ +	/səo/	‘100’	>	/pācsəo/	‘five hundred’

5. Verb

A verb is a member of the syntactic class of words that signals events and actions constitute, singly or in a phrase, a minimal predicate in a clause, govern the number and types of other constituents which may occur in the clause. Verb is a form class that marks tense – aspect – modal – personal markers distinguished by number and gender. In inflectional languages, verbs may be inflected for tense, aspect, and voice, and modality, agreement with other constituents in terms of person, number and grammatical gender. Verb Morphology deals with the forms and classification of verbs, and their pattern in association etc. Verb stems may either be simple or complex. A simple stem consists of only one root. A complex stem has a root followed by one or more derivational or formative elements.

Types of verb: A verb denotes action. Different types of actions are given below.

Physical Activity verbs

This class of verb denotes an action that has taken place.

/nisana ləgana/	‘to aim at’
/torət/	‘break (a rope, trans)’
/k ^h ola/	‘open (a door)’
/ikətt ^h a kəra/	‘pile up ‘

Instrument verbs

The action that has to be performed by the agent.

/kətat həve/	‘cut (rope) ‘
/bahar nikla/	‘scoop out’

Verbs of fighting

It denotes the verb expressing sense of fight or attack

/d ^h ava bol dena/	‘attack’
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Motion Verbs

This class of verbs denotes the action that has been performed.

/pəhuc gia/	‘reach for’
/ʃanvər liava t ^h əve/	‘lead (an animal)’

Classification of verbs: Verbs may be classified in two ways.

- a) Simple verb and
- b) compound verb.

Simple verb: Simple verb consists of one root.

/kuda/	‘jump up’
/ʃəiba/	‘to go’
/bʰik maŋgən/	‘to beg’
/luTna/	‘plunder’
/dourna/	‘to run’

Inflection of Verb: The verbs in Awadhi can be studied with respect to their transitivity, Finiteness.

Transitivity

Structurally, the classification is made according to their valency i.e., whether they take a single object or two objects or no objects at all.

Intransitive verb

/ciria ura tʰəi/	‘The birds fly.’
/gəija cəɾət ba/	‘The cow is grazing.’

The intransitive verbs are / ura tʰəi/ and / cəɾət ba/ that require no objects.

Transitive verbs as in

/u kʰete me ʃatʰe/	‘They go to the field.’
/həm aurət ke dekʰa tʰəi/	‘I see the lady.’

The transitive verbs are /ʃatʰe/ and / aurət/

Ditransitive verb as in

/səkar gəribən ke pəise det he/	‘The Government gives money to the poor’
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Ditransitive verbs take two objects - the direct object as in /pəise/ ‘money’ and indirect object like /gəribən ke/ ‘to the poor’. /ke/ is the case marker.

I. Finite verbs

A finite verb is a verb form that occurs in an independent clause and is fully inflected according to the inflectional categories marked on verbs in the language. The components of finite verb are 1. Tense 2. Aspect and 3. Mood.

i) Tense

Verbs in Awadhi are morphologically marked for having three way oppositions of tense as

1. Present Tense
2. Past Tense
3. Future Tense

Simple Present Tense

/həm əpne kartʋa me həĩ/	‘I am in my cart’
/həmar biʈia k ^h ete me ba/	‘My daughter is in the field.’

The simple present tense marker for the verb ‘to be’ are the auxiliary verbs / həĩ/ and /ba/.

/u həmkə dek ^h ət ba/	‘He sees me.’
/u həmkə dek ^h at ^h əi/	‘She sees me.’

The simple present tense marker for the verb ‘to see’ is

√dek ^h	+	/- ət/	+	/ba/
to see		suffix		aux
√dek ^h	+	/- at/	+	/həi/
to see		suffix		aux

Similarly, present tense marker for 1st and 3rd persons mainly are / dek^hət he/

/bəcca unke dek ^h ət he/	‘The child sees him’
/milət ^h əi/	‘I see you.’
/həm tohka dek ^h a t ^h əi/	‘We see you’
/ləika tohke dek ^h ət he/	‘The child sees you.’
/u tohke dek ^h ət he/	‘They see you.’

Simple Past Tense

/həm cəl gəini/	‘We went away’
/u dūr cəl gəlba/	‘He went away.’
/həm kəl ke hi æ baʈi/	‘We came yesterday.’

Simple Future Tense

/kəl həm gao ʃaib/	‘Tomorrow I shall go to the field.’
/həm kəl gao aib/	‘I shall come from the village tomorrow.’
/kəl həm gao ʃaib/	‘Tomorrow we shall go to the village.’

The simple future tense marker for the verb ‘to go’/‘to come’ for 1st person singular and plural are

√ ʃa	+	/- ib/
to go		suffix

√ a	+	/- ib/
to come		suffix

/tu səb ʃaiba/	‘You (pl) will go’
/u ʃəĩ hen/	‘She will go.’
/u ʃəĩ he/	‘They will go.’

The simple future tense marker for the verb ‘to go’ in 2nd person plural and 3rd person singular and plural are

√ ʃa	+	/- əi/	+	/ba/
to see		suffix		aux

√ ʃa	+	/- əi/	+	/hen//he/
to see		suffix		aux

/oke ʃaj ke pərhi/	‘He will have to go’
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Similarly,	√ ʃa	+	/- j/	+	/ke parhi/
to see	suffix		obligatory		auxiliary

ii) Mood

Mood expresses the attitude of the speaker towards what he is saying in terms of the degree or kind of reality in terms of indicative, imperative, subjunctive, obligatory, dubitative, permissive of the propositional content of the sentence.

Indicative Mood- Most verbs we use are in indicative mood, which indicates the action.

/u onhik cakku həy/	‘that is his knife’
(that) (his) (knife) (is)	

/usƏb hamar kitab hƏy/ 'those are my books'
(those) (my) (books) (are)

/i hamar bagia hƏy/ 'this is my garden'
This my garden is

Imperative Mood- Verb in the imperative mood denotes command or request. This mood always occurs with second person. Though it is not present in the sentence but the sense must be there and it is always understood that it denotes the second person. For example:

/kƏlle kƏllese bola/ 'speak slowly'
slowly) (speak)

/sƏp^hase lik^ha/ 'write the words neatly'
(neatly) (write)

/g^hƏre cƏla ʃa/ 'go home'
(home) (go)

Subjunctive Mood- When verbs show something contrary to the fact, they are in the subjunctive mood. It is used to express wishes, commands, emotions, possibility, judgment, necessity etc.

/ʃƏdi menƏhƏt kƏrba to pas hoye ʃaba/ 'if you work hard, you will succeed'
If work hard then succeed

/ʃƏdi ʃaʃi der se avat to ham pƏkƏʃ let/ 'If the train comes late, we may catch it'
If train late come then we catch

Obligatory Mood- Expressing an action that should be performed.

/unka ekʃi kitab lik^hda/ 'he should write a book'
He a book write

Dubitative Mood- Dubitative mood which expresses doubt or uncertainty on the part of the speaker.

/ham ay sƏkit^he/ 'I may come'
(I) (may come)

/vo ciria ka mar ɖarat^hƏ/ 'he may kill the bird'
(he) (bird) (may kill)

Permissive Mood- Permissive mood expresses permissions.

/tohare kuc^h ʃa Əur t^horase pani lava/ 'let some of you go and fetch water'
Some of you go and some water fetch

iv) Aspect

Aspect is a grammatical category associated with verbs that expresses a temporal view of the event or state expressed by the verb. Aspectual information implies is related with duration, perfection, habituality etc. Awadhi has three aspects interpreted in different tenses. These are –

- i. Imperfective or Durative Aspect
- ii. Perfective Aspect
- iii. Habitual Aspect

Imperfective or Durative Aspect- Imperfective aspect is an aspect that expresses an event or state, with respect to its internal structure, instead of expressing it as a simple whole. It describes an action which is regarded as continuous in the past or present or future tenses. Thus the structure of the finite verb with durative aspect is – verb stem - + durative (tense marker) + copula (person marker). In Awadhi different forms of verb ‘to go’ and ‘to see’ is presented below For example,

Present Imperfective Aspect-

For present continuous, the verb root /-jat/ occurs with the TPNG (tense + person + number + gender) marker /-həy/ for first person singular and plural, /-həya/ for second person singular and plural respectively, /-həy/ for third person singular and plural.

Person	Singular	Plural
First Person	/ham jat həy/ ‘I am going’	/ham jat həy/ ‘we are going’
Second Person	/tum jat həy/ ‘you are going’	/tumsəbʃone jat həya/ ‘you are going’
Third Person	/vo jat həy/ ‘he is going’	/vesəbʃəne jat həy/ ‘they are going’

Past Imperfective Aspect-

For past continuous, the verb root /-ja/ occurs with aspect marker /-t/, TPNG (tense + person + number + gender) marker /-həy/ for first, and third person singular and plural, /-həya/ for second person singular and plural.

Person	Singular	Plural
First person	/ham jat həy/ ‘I was going’	/ham jat həy/ ‘we were going’
Second person	/tuhū jat həya/ ‘you were going’	/tu jay həya/ ‘you were going’
Third person	/vo jay həy/ ‘he was going’	/unkəsəb jat həy/ ‘they were going’

Future Imperfective Aspect-

For future continuous, the verb root /-ʃa/ occurs with aspect marker /-t/ and the TPNG (tense + person + number + gender) marker /-həy/ for all three person in singular and plural.

Person	Singular	Plural
First person	/ham ʃat həy/ ‘I will be going’	/ham ʃat həy/ ‘we will be going’
Second person	/tu ʃat həy/ ‘you will be going’	/tu ʃat həy/ ‘you will be going’
Third person	/vo ʃat həy/ ‘he will be going’	/ve ʃat həy/ ‘they will be going’

Perfective Aspect- It describes an action either completed in the past or to be completed in the past or to be completed. In the present it expresses the completion of an action which is just finished. In the past it expresses the action which is already done. The action to be completed in near future is expressed in future perfect. In Awadhi language examples of perfective aspect is expressed by present, past and future perfect tense.

Present perfective Aspect-

Here the verb root /ga-/ ‘to go’ occurs with the TPNG (tense + person, number, gender) marker /-həy/ for first person, /-rəhə/ for second person, /-rəhi/ for third person singular and plural.

Person	Singular	Plural
First person	/ham ga həy/ ‘I have gone’	/ham ga həy/ ‘we have gone’
Second person	/tuhū garəhə/ ‘you have gone’	/tu garəhə/ ‘you (pl) have gone’
Third person	/vo garəhi/ ‘he has gone’	/unohu garəhi/ ‘they have gone’

Past Perfective Aspect-

For past perfective, the verb root /ga-/ occurs with aspect marker /-rə-/ and the TPNG marker (tense + person, number, gender) /-hi/, /-he/ for first person singular and plural respectively, /-hə/ for second person, /-hi/, /-he/ for third person singular and plural respectively.

Person	Singular	Plural
First person	/hamohu garəhi/ ‘I had gone’	/ham garəhe/ ‘we had gone’
Second person	/tuhū garəhə/ ‘you had gone’	/səbʃəne garəhə/ ‘you (pl) had gone’
Third person	/vo garəhi/ ‘he had gone’	/ve garəhe/ ‘they had gone’

Future Perfective Aspect-

For future perfective, the verb /gəy-/ occurs with the aspect marker /-rə-/ , TPNG (tense + person, number, gender) marker /-hi hobi/ for first person, /-hə hobo/ for second person, /-hə hobi/ for third person singular and plural.

Person	Singular	Plural
First person	/ham gəyrəhi hobi/ ‘I shall have gone’	/hamre gəyrəhi hobi/ ‘we will have gone’
Second person	/tuhū gəyrəhə hobo/ ‘you will have gone’	/səbʃəne gəyrəhə hobo/ ‘you (pl) will have gone’
Third person	/vo gəyrəhə hobi/ ‘he will have gone’	/vo gəyrəhə hobi/ ‘they will have gone’

Present Perfect Continuous Tense-

The verb root /dek^h-/ ‘to see’ occurs with the aspect marker /at-/ and TPNG (tense, person, number, gender) marker /-həy/ for first and third person, /-həya/ for second person singular and plural.

Person	Singular	Plural
First person	/ham dek ^h at həy/ ‘I have been seeing’	/ham dek ^h at həy/ ‘we have been seeing’
Second person	/tū dek ^h at həya/ ‘you have been seeing’	/səbʃəne dek ^h at həya/ ‘you have been seeing’
Third person	/vo dek ^h at həy/ ‘he has been seeing’	/ve dek ^h at həy/ ‘they have been seeing’

Past Perfect Continuous Tense-

The verb root /dek^h-/ ‘to see’ occurs with the aspect marker /-at-/ , TPNG (tense + person, number, gender) marker /-həy/ for all the three persons both in singular and plural.

Person	Singular	Plural
First person	/ham dek ^h at həy/ ‘I had been seeing’	/ham dek ^h at həy/ ‘we had been seeing’
Second person	/tūhu dek ^h at həy/ ‘you had been seeing’	/səbʃəne dek ^h at həy/ ‘you had been seeing’
Third person	/vo dek ^h at həy/ ‘he had been seeing’	/ve dek ^h at həy/ ‘they had been seeing’

Future Perfect Continuous Tense-

The verb root /dek^h-/ occurs with the aspect marker /-at/, tense marker /-b/, TPNG marker (person, number, gender) /-hoba/ for all three persons in both singular and plural.

Person	Singular	Plural
First person	/ham dek ^h at hoba/ 'I shall have been seeing'	/ham dek ^h at hoba/ 'we shall have been seeing'
Second person	/tūhu dek ^h at hoba/ 'you shall have been seeing'	/səbʃəne dek ^h at hoba/ 'you shall have been seeing'
Third person	/vo dek ^h at hoba/ 'he shall have been seeing'	/ve dek ^h at hoba/ 'they shall have been seeing'

Habitual Aspect- It describes an action which happens/happened or will happen habitually or regularly.

Present habitual Aspect- in this mother tongue, past habitual is formed in the following way:

/surəʃ purub ugət həy/	'the sun rises in the east'
/ham roʃ gay dud ^h duhit həy/	'we milk cows everyday'

Past habitual Aspect- The verb root /ʃa-/ occurs with aspect marker /-it/, TPNG (tense + person + number + gender) marker /-həy/ for all three person in both singular and plural.

Person	Singular	Plural
First person	/ham ʃait həy/ 'I used to go'	/ham ʃait həy/ 'we used to go'
Second person	/tu ʃait həy/ 'you used to go'	/tohəre ʃait həy/ 'you (pl) used to go'
Third person	/vo ʃait həy/ 'he used to go'	/ve ʃait həy/ 'they used to go'

v) Causative Aspect

A causative is a grammatical or lexical indication of the causal role of a referent in relation to an event or state expressed by a verb.

/u usse səman dilaʋət rəhnə hə lekin unke in na pəsəndba/
He by him luggage to make him give but he it does not like
The causative verb is 'dilaʋət.'

vi) Negation Aspect

In a SOV ordered sentence the negative element comes with the verb of the sentence. In Awadhi, negation is expressed through /-na/.

/i k^haye layek na həy/ ‘this is not edible’

This edible not is

/u kamna kihe həy/ ‘she has not done the work’

She work not done

/tohre səb pəṭəṭ na həy/ ‘you are not reading’

You reading not

/ham b^hian na ayi/ ‘I shall not come tomorrow’

I tomorrow not come

II. Non-finite verbs

i. Infinitive

An infinitive form is to + the verb. Some verbs can take either the gerund or the infinitive with no loss of meaning. The infinitive markers in Awadhi are /-na/, /-la/, /-da/.

/pəḱəṛna/	‘to catch’
/sap ^h kəṛna/	‘to clean’
/hilana/	‘to shake’
/ḱubda/	‘to sink’
/ḱ ^h ākda/	‘to cover’
/reṇda/	‘to crawl’
/pəḱəṭla/	‘to hold’
/k ^h əṭṭayla/	‘to itch’

i. Verbal Noun

Derived Nouns formed by adding derivational suffix to other words

Nouns derived from verbal base are called Verbal Noun.

1. /g^hora dour pəra ba/
Horse run-INF past
‘The horse ran’

/dour g^hore ke dvara ki jat he/
Running horse by is done
‘Running is done by the horse’

From the above examples, the following can be established.

dour	‘to run’ +	ø	>	dour	‘running’
INF				Verbal Noun	

/b^houke ka kam kutta kəra t^həve/
 Barking of work dog is done
 ‘The work of barking is done by dog.’

/kukkur b^houka t^həve/
 The dog is barking
 ‘The dog is barking.’

/kukkur na b^houka t^həve/
 The dog not barking
 ‘The dog is not barking.’

From the above examples, the following can be established.

/b ^h ouka/	>	/b ^h ouke/	(a>e) barking
barking			
Inf form of Verb	>	Verbal Noun	

/teli/ ‘oilman’

/tel/	>	/-i/	>	/teli/
Oil		suffix		oilman

In the above example, /-i/ is the derivational suffix.

i. Gerund

Gerunds and infinitives are forms of verbs that act like nouns. They can follow adjectives and other verbs. Since it is a kind of noun, it may be the subject or object to some verb. Example:

/təharna səriroke liye acc ^h a həy/	‘swimming is good for health’
Swimming for health good	

/d ^h ūihar pina sərirka noksan kəṛəhə/	‘smoking is dangerous for health’
Smoking for health dangerous	

ii. Participle

A participle is a word that shares some characteristics of both verbs and adjectives. It is also called verbal adjective. A participle is a word formed from a verb that can function as part of a verb phrase.

/c^hapi huyi kitab/ ‘printed books’
(printed) (books)

/gira huya p^hƏlka/ ‘fallen fruits’
(Fallen) (fruits)

iii. Compound Verb

A Compound verb consists of more than one root and may include one or more suffixes. In Awadhi compound verbs are as follows,

/sap^h kəra t^həi/ ‘mend (a garment)’
/p^həl ləgava t^həvə/ ‘to bear (fruit).

6. Adverbs

An adverb modifies verbs. Adverbs are of three types - adverbs of time, Adverbs of place and adverbs of manner.

Adverb of time as in /itna ʃəldi/ ‘so soon’

/itna	ʃəldi	bic ^h ouna	pər	mət	ʃa/
So	soon	bed	to	don’t	go

Adverb of manner as in /cəura/ ‘wide’ and adverb of place as in /bəhut dur/ ‘far away’

7. Interjections

An interjection is a form, typically brief, such as one syllable or word, which is applied frequently as an exclamation or part of an exclamation as in

/bƏdƏreme ketna sundƏr d^hƏnus ba/
‘What a beautiful rainbow in the sky!’

5. SYNTAX

Syntax is the study of the principles and rules for constructing phrases and sentences in natural languages and rules governing the order of combining the words to form sentences in a language. The syntax of Awadhi is discussed below.

Word Order

Word order typology is the study of the order of the syntactic constituents of a language. The basic word order of Awadhi is SOV (Subject Object Verb).

/u	həmar	bəhin	həĩ/	‘She is my sister.’
Subj-SheI -Poss		Obj-sister	Aux V- is	

/u	tohke	dek ^h ət	he/	‘They see you.’
Subj-He/She	Obj - Acc	Verb-Prs - see	Aux V-is	

(I) Phrases

A phrase is a syntactic structure that consists of more than one word but lacks the subject-predicate organization of a clause. The phrasal sub-division in Awadhi is as follows.

a. Noun Phrase

A noun phrase or nominal phrase, (NP), combines with other words in a noun phrase, optionally accompanied by modifiers like adjectives and intensifiers. A noun as well as a pronoun may act like a noun Phrase.

/bəcca pərhət rəhnə hə/
‘The child was reading.’

Noun Phrase is / bəcca/ here.

b. Verb Phrase

A verb phrase (VP) is a phrase that has the syntactic role of a simple verb, and is composed of a main verb and auxiliary verbs or verbal particles related syntactically to the verb. In generative grammar, a verb phrase is a syntactic unit that corresponds to the predicate. In addition to the verb, this includes auxiliaries, objects, object complements and other constituents apart from the subject. These are inflected for person, number and gender. The predicate may be a finite intransitive or transitive verb.

/həmar biʈia bəgəica me baʈi/
 I -Gen daughter -obj garden in- postposition is -Aux
 My daughter is in the garden

/həm unkəra ke dek^hat həi/
 I them Acc - postposition seen- Prs perf Aux
 'I see them'
 The verb phrases are / bəgəica me baʈi/ and /dek^hat həi/.

c. Post Positional Phrase

A postposition is an adposition that occurs after its complement. An adpositional phrase is a syntactic category that includes prepositional phrase (PP) and postpositional phrases (POSTP). In this language we find Postpositional Phrases.

/bəccən bəgəica me avət he/
 Child-plural garden in-postposition has come (Verb + aux)
 'The children come to the garden'

The postpositional phrase is /me/.

d. Adjectival Phrase

In an adjectival phrase, the adjective acts as the head of the phrase. An adjectival phrase consists of an adjective followed by a noun.

/bəriər q^hər/
 large- Adj house-noun

/bəre bəre q^hər/
 large- Adj house-noun

/ bəre bəre/ is also an example of reduplication.

e. Adverbial Phrase

An adverb is a lexical category whose members have the same syntactic distribution and which modifies adjectives, other adverbs, verbs, or whole clauses or sentences. An adverbial phrase has an adverb that complements the verb.

/kəl həm gao ʃaib/
 Tomorrow I - pl village go-fut
 Tomorrow I shall go to the village.
 Adverb of Time - / kəl/

/mu kəise boli/
 I-sg how speak
 'How shall I speak?'
 Adverb of Manner - / kəise/

/tu dunu andər ava/
 You two inside come
 Adverb of Place - / andər /

(II) Types of sentences

A sentence is a grammatical unit that is composed of one or more clauses. The sentences in Awadhi can be structurally classified into

1. Simple
2. Complex
3. Compound

Simple Sentence

A simple sentence consists of one independent clause and no dependent clauses. It consists of one subject and one predicate.

/həmar	ləikuən	agəe	baʃen/	'My sons have come.'
Subj-Gen	Obj- Pl	verb come	have	

Subject - həmar ləikuən
 Predicate agəe baʃen

/həmre	ek tʰe	biTia	ba/	'I have one daughter'
Subj-Gen	Num-Cl	Obj	aux - have	

Subject- həmre
 Predicate - ek tʰe biTia ba

Complex Sentence

A complex sentence consists of one independent clause and one or more dependent clauses. The independent clause is the principal clause and the dependent clauses are the subordinate clauses.

/mu bəiʰəb tə kam ho ʤae/
 'I -Prn-Subj sit upon then work will be done
 'If I sit upon the work will be done.'

/əgər mu ɔur kame pər na bəiʰti tə na hot/
 If 'I more work on had not sat then had not been done
 'If I had not sat upon then more work could not have been done. '

Compound Sentence

A compound sentence is a sentence composed of two or more coordinate clauses joined by a conjunction.

/mu uke səman le ʤae ke kəhətʰi lekin u əbəhi na kərə cahət həve/
 I-subj him-acc luggage-obj take to said but he did not want to take it

'I asked him to take the luggage but he did not want to take it.'

The sentences in Awadhi can be semantically classified into

1. Statement Sentence
2. Interrogation Sentence
3. Imperative Sentence
4. Purposive Sentence
5. Potential Sentence
6. Conditional Sentence

Statement Sentence

The sentence which affirms a statement. Examples in Awadhi include-

/mu pəisa le lehni/
 I money have taken
 'I have taken the money'

Interrogation Sentence

A sentence which asks a question like in Awadhi -

/ap səməj pər kahe na ae/
 You-Hon in time why not did come
 'Why did you not come in time?'
 The question word is /kahe/.

Imperative Sentence

The sentence which indicates any order like -

/həmre karTua me ʃa/
I- Gen cart to go
'Go to my cart'

/həmar kitəbia id^hər lava/
I- Gen book-obj here-dem bring
'Bring my book here.'

Purposive Sentence

The sentence which expresses a purpose like –

/ok ek kitab likk^he ke pəri/
He one book must write
'He must write a book'

Potential Sentence

When the potentiality of an action is expressed in a sentence, it thus called.

/unke kuc pəisa cahi/
He-Acc some money-obj want
'He wants some money.'

Conditional Sentence

When two actions are conditioned by each other in a single sentence then a conditional sentence is formed.

/əgər mu bəi^həb tə kam ho ʃae/
If I had sat then work had been done

Structurally a sentence can be classified into Active and Passive sentences.

An active sentence is converted into passive sentence by the following

Subject changes into object.

Adding 'by'.

Object changes to the subject.

Changing the verb form to its participle form.

Active Sentence

/mu kam kərina/
I work did

Passive Sentence

/kitab unke dvara pəri jat he/
Book him-Acc by-PP is being read
'The book is being read by him.'

Passivity is indicated by the postposition /dvara/.

Causative Sentence

The causative sentences are formed by suffixing causative marker to the verb which varies according to the person. When the subject causes some agent to do the action we get causative sentence. Here the causative form of the verb is used.

/u usse səman dilavət rəhnə hə lekin unke i na pəsənd ba/
'He makes him give the luggage to him but he does not feel like'
The causative marker here is /dilavət/ 'to make someone to give.'

Relative Clause

A relative clause is a kind of subordinate clause, one of whose arguments shares a referent with a main clause element on which the subordinate clause is grammatically dependent.

/kon ba i admi jo abhi ajəl həve/
Who-qs word are-aux these-adj men who now come- Prs perf
'Who are these men who have come just now.'
/ kon ba i admi/ - relative clause.

6. CONCLUSION

The conclusive part of this report highlights the specific linguistic aspects of Awadhi.

1. Awadhi exhibits bilingualism as the speakers speak Awadhi but at the same time retain their original dialect.
2. The phoneme inventory contains the segmental and as well the supra segmental phonemes.
3. No vowel length has been noticed.
4. All the syllable patterns are noticed.
5. All the case markers are present.
6. Nasalised vowels are present but they are not morphophonemic in nature.
7. Fricativisation is seen.

7. TEXT

/do dost or ek b^halu/
Two friends and a bear

1. /ramu or sjamu do dost rāhnə duno ek dusre se vada kəre rāhen/
Ramu and Shyam two friends were both each other had promised

/ki u kono b^hi khətra mē sath dihē ek din u duno/
that they at any danger in remain together one day they two
/jəŋgəl me jat rāhen/
were walking through a forest.

/jəŋgəl me jat rāhen/
forest (a) through walking

‘Two friends, Ramu and Shyam walked through a forest. They promised each other that they would remain united in case of any danger.’

2. /ek din u duno jəŋgəl me jat rāhen tə sēmua se/
One day(as) they two through forest were walking from front

/ b^halu ai gae/
(a) bear came

‘Once they were walking through a forest a bear came on their way.’

3. /b^halu ke dek^h ke duino doston dər gəinə/
the bear on seeing the two friends afraid became
‘On seeing the bear the two friends became afraid.’

4. /ramu dər ke mare peṛwa pər cər gae gae/
Ramu out of fear on tree climbed
‘Ramu climbed a tree.’

5. /sjamu ke peṛwa pər ceṛhe na awət rāha/
Shyam on tree to climb did not know
‘Shyam did not know how to climb a tree.’

6. /u əpne mitrə ramu se boles/
He his friend Ramu to told
‘He told his friend, ‘

7. /ki hāme peṭ pər ceṭhe nae avət hāmar tu mādət kəra/
 that in me to climb tree do not know my you help make
 ‘I do not know how to climb a tree, please help me.’

8. /ramu kauno jəvab nahi dehəne/
 Ramu any reply no gave
 ‘Ramu did not respond.’

9. /etne me dukhi ɔr niras huike sāmua bhūṛa pe/
 By this grief and helpless became Shyam on ground

/apən sasija rokke leṭii gəva/
 breathless by holding lay down.
 ‘In fear and grief, Shyam lay down on the ground breathless.’

10. /jəise bhalu okəre pas poḥuca jəminia pe leṭəl sāmua letəl sāmua /
 As bear him near reached ground on laid down Shyam

/ke dekh ke oka sūṅgghe suṅghe ləga/
 having seen him smelling started

11. /kuch der sūṅgghe suṅg^he ke bədwa u bhaluwā sāmua ke chor ke/
 For sometime smelling ‘ after that bear Shyam leaving

/cəla gəl/
 went away.

‘The bear came near the man lying on the ground. It smelt in his ears, and slowly left the place’

12. /peṭ pər bəṭha ram ke ləgəl/
 tree sitting on Ram it appeared to
 Sitting on tree it appeared to Ram

13. /bhaluwa b^həlvā sāmua sāmua kanva me kuch bole gəeba /
 Bear Shyam’s in ears had said something
 ‘Sitting on the tree Ram felt that the bear said something into Shyam’s ears.’

14. / u jəldi se nice ais ɔr sāmua se puches/
 He hurriedly came down and Shyam to asked
 ‘Ramu hurriedly came down and asked Shyam.’

15. /dost mere u bhaluwa tore kanwa kanva me ka bole/
 My friend that bear in your ears said what
 ‘Friend, what did the bear tell you into your ears?’
16. /semua jəminia se uʰen ɔr ramuwva se bole/
 Shyam ground from arose and Ramu told
 ‘Shyam arose from the ground and replied.’
17. /ki u bhalu bʰalu həmse kəhes juʰen juʰən ɔr mətləbi loggən ke/
 That the bear to me told false and selfish people

 /bʰərosa mət kariha kəbbo/
 trust not to be made
 ‘that the bear told me that false and selfish people are not to be trusted.’
18. /je ʒe toke musibət me ch cʰorke cəla ʒai/
 Who you in danger leaves and goes away
 ‘who leaves you in times of danger.’
19. /itna kəhike semua uha se əkele cəl dehes /
 Saying this Shyam from there alone went away
 ‘Saying this, Shyam walked away from there.’

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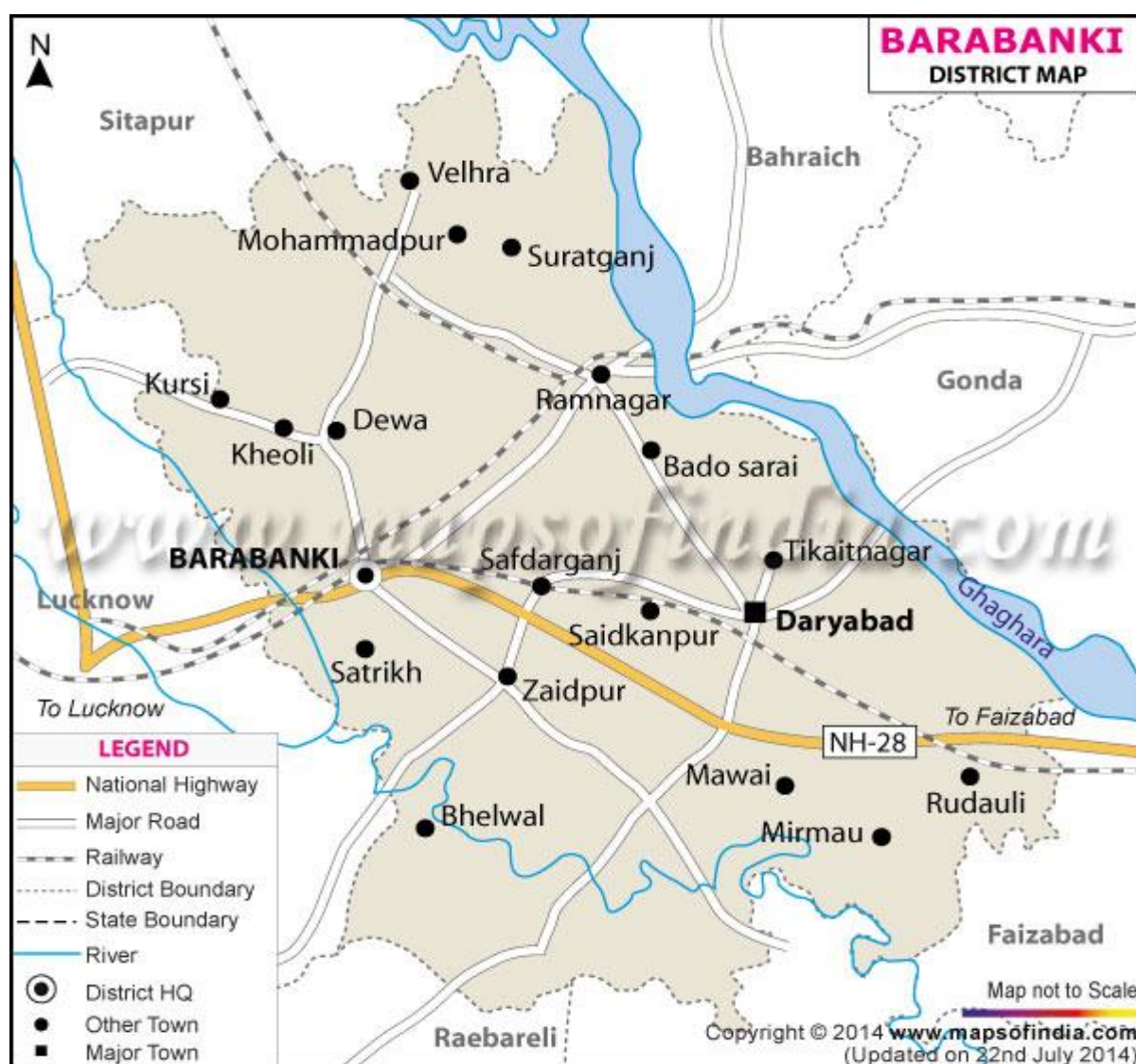
DEHATI

Sucharita Chakraborty

1. INTRODUCTION

Family Affiliation

Dehati is a variety of Hindi language. The data was collected from Barabanki district of Uttar Pradesh. The present variety is very much close to Bhojpuri than to Maithili. The Census returns enumerates it as a Mother Tongue of Maithili.



Location

The Barabanki district is one of four districts of Faizabad division, lies at the very heart of Awadh region of Uttar Pradesh state of India, and forms as it were a centre from which no

less than seven other districts radiate. It is situated between 27°19' and 26°30' north latitude, and 80°05' and 81°51' east longitude; it runs in a south-easterly direction, confined by the nearly parallel streams of the Ghaghara and Gomti. With its most northern point it impinges on the Sitapur district, while its north-eastern boundary is washed by the waters of the Ghagra, beyond which lie the districts of Bahraich district and Gonda district. Its eastern frontier marches with Faizabad district, and the Gomti forms a natural boundary to the south, dividing it from the Sultanpur district. On the west it adjoins the Lucknow district. The extreme length of the district from east to west may be taken at 57 miles (92 km), and the extreme breadth at 58 mi (93 km); the total area is about 1,504 sq mi (3,900 km²): its population amounts to 26,73,581, being at the rate of 686.50 per square kilometre (1,778.0/sq mi).

Speaker's Strength

According to the 2011 census estimate, the total population of the region is around 146,831. Dehati is an informal language spoken in the area.

Bilingualism

The natives of this mother-tongue speak Hindi as the official language of the state of Uttar Pradesh. Because Barabanki is a Minority-concentrated District with the majority of its residents practising Islam, Urdu is another language they are proficient in.)

2. PHONOLOGY

2.1 Vowel Chart

Segmental Vowel Phonemes:

Phonemic Inventory of Vowels

In Dehati, the vowel system is based on 12 segmental vowels. Out of the 10 vowel phonemes 4 are front, 3 are central and 6 are back.

	Front	Central	Back
Close	i ɪ	ɨ	u ʊ
Close-mid	e		o u
Mid		ə	
Open-mid	ɛ		ɔ
Open		a	

Phonemic Contrasts

(a) Vowels

- (/a/) ~ /e/
/bal/ 'hair' : /bel/ 'bel (sripal)'
- /a/ ~ /i/
/dada/ 'father's father' : /dadi/ 'father's mother'
- /e/ ~ /ɛ/
/me/ 'in' : /mɛ/ 'I'
- /ə/ ~ /a/
/bəl/ 'strength' : /bal/ 'hair'
- /ʊ/ ~ /o/
/gʊli/ 'marbles' : /goli/ 'bullet'
- /o/ ~ /ɔ/
/mos/ 'rat' : /mɔs/ 'sprain'

Distribution of Vowels

In Dehati all the vowels occur in the initial, medial and final positions except /ɛ/ which does not occur word initially and /ə/ which occurs only medially, as is shown below.

	Initial	Medial	Final
/i/ High front unrounded vowel.			
	/id ^h ər/	/tin/	/rak ^h i/
	‘here’	‘three’	‘ash’
/ɪ/ Front High unrounded Short vowel			
	/ɪmli /	/tɪket/	/jədi/
	/tamarind’	‘ticket’	‘if’
/e/ Mid-high front unrounded vowel.			
	/ek/	/beɪ/	/pəncanvə/
	‘one’	‘girl’	‘ninety five’
/ɛ/ Front Mid-low Un-rounded vowel.			
	---	/kɛse/	/biɟəj/
		‘how’	‘victory’
/ə/ Central-mid vowel.			
	/əntɪm/	/dəs/	/c ^h ɛ/
	‘last’	‘ten’	‘six/
/a/ Unrounded Low-front vowel/ central unrounded vowel (Some words utilise the /a/-unrounded low-back vowel, although it is uncommon.)			
	/a ^h /	/rak ^h i/	/gup ^h a/
	‘eight’	‘ash’	‘cave’
/ɔ/ Back Mid-Low Rounded vowel.			
	/ɔrət/	/tɔlije/ or /tɔlie/)	/nɔ/
	‘woman’	‘towel’	‘nine’
/o/ Mid-high back rounded vowel.			
	/okil/	/sona/	/g ^h ɪrno/
	‘advocate’	‘gold’	‘to count’

/ʊ/ Back High Rounded Short vowel.			
	/ʊʃəl/	/gʊpʰa/	/setu/
	‘white’	‘cave’	‘bridge’
/ʊ/ High back half-rounded vowel.			
	/ʊbalna/	/dʊdʰ/	/cakʊʊ/
	‘to boil’	‘milk’	‘nife’
/u:/ Back high rounded long vowel			
	/u:/	/pʰu:kina/	/balu:/
	‘they’	‘to blow’	‘sand’
/i/ Mid central vowel			
	---	/pʰu:kina/	/ʈikəti/
		‘to blow’	‘ticket’

Diphthongs

Dehati also shows the occurrence of diphthongs. Some examples are given below
Examples;

/ai/	as in	/kəlai/	‘wrist’
/aɪ/	as in	/caʈai/	‘mat’
/ae/	as in	/laen/	‘line’
/ao/	as in	/nao/	‘boat’
/oa/	as in	/moat/	‘fat’
/oi/	as in	/nandoi/	‘husband’s sister’s husband’
/oə/	as in	/soərg/	‘heaven’
		(alternative: /swərg/)	
/ua/	as in	/suər/	‘pig’
/əu/	as in	/bəuna/	‘dwarf’
/əl/	as in	/pəɭama/	‘trousers’
		(alternatives: /pajɭama/ or /paɭama/)	

/ui/	as in	/ɗui/	‘two’
/eo/	as in	/neora/	‘mongoose’

Apart from these diphthongs, there are no instances of triphthongs in Dehati.

Nasalization

Dehati also shows the occurrence of Nasalization. Nasalization occurs here with or without the influence of nasal consonants.

Examples of these occurrences of nasalized vowels are shown below.

/ã/	/kãc/	‘glass’
/õ/	/g ^h ərõ/	‘houses’
/ĩ/	/sĩcna/	‘to irrigate’
/ẽ/	/kĩrnẽ/	‘sunlight’
/ẽ/	/pẽsəɽ ^h /	‘sixty-five’
/õ/	/b ^h õkna/	‘to bark’
/õ/	/bõhis/	‘argument’
/ũ/	/kũvara/	‘bachelor’

From the data it is observed that nasalized vowels are prevalent word-medially in Dehati. However, they may also be found word-initially and word-finally in the language.

2.2 Consonants

	Bilabial		Labio-dental		Dental		Alveolar		Retroflex		Alveo-Palatal		Palatal		Velar		Glottal
	vl	vd	vl	vd	vl	vd	vl	vd	vl	vd	vl	vd	vl	vd	vl	vd	vl
Oral Stops	p	b			t	d			ʈ	ɖ			c	ɟ	k	g	
-asp	p ^h	b ^h			t ^h	d ^h			ʈ ^h	ɖ ^h			c ^h	ɟ ^h	k ^h	g ^h	
+asp																	
Nas. Stops		m					n		ɳ						ŋ		
-asp																	
+asp																	

Fricati ves -asp +asp		v		s			ʃ		h
Affrica tes -asp +asp		ʋ							
Trills -asp +asp									
Flaps				r	ɾ				
Lateral -asp +asp				l					
Appro x.							j		

Contrasts in Consonants

- /s/ ~ /d/
/so/ ‘hundred’ : /do/ ‘two’
- /k/ ~ /b/
/kəl/ ‘tomorrow’ : /bəl/ ‘strength’
- /t/ ~ /l/
/ser/ ‘lion’ : /sel/ ‘tiger’
- /n/ ~ /b/
/nəs/ ‘vein’ : /bəs/ ‘bus’
- /t/ ~ /s/
/rona / ‘to cry’ : /sona/ ‘to sleep’
- /k/ ~ /k^h/
/kan/ ‘ear’ : /k^han/ ‘mine’
- /t/ ~ /t^h/
/sat/ ‘seven’ : /sat^h/ ‘with’

- /t/ ~ /tʰ/.

/cʰɔt/ ‘small’ : /cʰɔtʰ/ ‘short’

- /p/ ~ /pʰ/

/pɔl/ ‘bridge (types of bridge)’ : /pʰɔl/ ‘flower’

Distribution of Consonant

Most of the consonants occur in all (i.e.-initial, medial and final) positions in Dehati mother-tongue. Consonants which does not occur at all position are /ɲ/, /ɽ/, /dʱ/, /ŋ/, and /j/. In Dehati /j/and /dʱ/ only appear in word-initial and word-medial positions and do not appear word-finally whereas the occurrence of /ɲ/ and /ɽ/ are strictly restricted to word-medial and final position, while /ŋ/ occurs only word finally, as, shown below:

	Initial	Medial	Final
/p/ Bilabial voiceless unaspirated stop.			
	/pəhar/	/bəcpən/	/tap/
	‘mountain’	‘childhood’	‘heat’
/pʰ/ Bilabial voiceless aspirated stop.			
	/pʰepʰra/	/gʊpʰa/	/sāpʰ/
	‘lung’	‘cave’	‘snake’
/b/ Bilabial voiced unaspirated stop.			
	/bərɸ/	/ʃabra/	/talab/
	‘ice’	‘jaw’	‘pond’
/bʰ/ Bilabial voiced aspirated stop.			
	/bʰāṭa/	/kʰəmbʰa/	/gərbʰ/
	‘low tide’	‘pillar’	‘pride’
/t/ Dental voiceless unaspirated stop.			
	/tap/	/pota/	/sat/
	‘heat’	‘son’s son’	‘seven’
/tʰ/ Dental voiceless aspirated stop.			
	/tʰəɽja/	/patʰər/	/ʃəmanətʰ/
	‘plate’	‘rock’	‘bail’
/d/ Dental voiced unaspirated stop.			
	/dukʰ/	/nədi/	/jad/
	‘grief’	‘river’	‘memory’
/dʰ/ Dental voiced aspirated stop.			
	/dʰūa/	/əndʰər/	/sugəndʰ/
	‘smoke’	‘darkness’	‘scent’
/ɽ/ Retroflex voiceless unaspirated stop.			

	/tək ^h na/	/maɪ/	/peɪ/
	‘ankle’	‘clay’	‘belly’
/t ^h / Retroflex voiceless aspirated stop.			
	/t ^h ət ^h er/	/pi ^h a/	/pi ^h /
	‘coppersmith’	‘ash gourd’	‘back’
/d/ Retroflex voiced unaspirated stop.			
	/dɤkmən/	/əndɤ/	---
	‘postman’	‘egg’	
/d ^h / Retroflex voiced aspirated stop.			
	/d ^h ol/	/kund ^h i/	---
	‘drum’	‘bolt’	
/k/ Velar voiceless unaspirated stop.			
	/kund ^h i/	/kākəɾ/	/cak/
	‘bolt’	‘pebble’	‘chalk’
/k ^h / Velar voiceless aspirated stop.			
	/k ^h et/	/rak ^h i/	/ədrək ^h /
	‘land’	‘ash’	‘ginger’
/g/ Velar voiced unaspirated stop.			
	/gup ^h a/	/kagəɟ/	/soərg/
	‘cave’	‘paper’	‘heaven’
/g ^h / Velar voiced aspirated stop.			
	/g ^h ənɟi/	/g ^h ōg ^h a/	/ɟāg ^h /
	/bell/	‘snail’	‘thigh’
/m/ Bilabial voiced nasal stop.			
	/maɪ/	/ɟəmin/	/sem/
	‘clau’	‘ground’	‘beans’
/n/ Dental voiced nasal stop.			
	/nədi/	/cuna/	/vəɟən/
	‘river’	‘lime’	‘weight’
/ɲ/ Retroflex voiced nasal.			
	---	---	/guɲ /
			‘virtue’
/ŋ/ Velar voiced nasal.			
	---	/səŋk ^h /	/ləŋ/
		‘conch’	‘clove’
/c/ Palatal voiceless unaspirated stop.			
	/cuna/	/pəcis/	/nac/
	‘lime’	‘twenty-five’	‘dance’
/c ^h / Palatal voiceless aspirated stop.			
	/c ^h e/	/pəc ^h orna/	/pūc ^h /
	‘six’	‘to winnow’	‘tail’

/ʃ/ Palatal voiced unaspirated stop.			
	/ʃara/	/ʊəʃən/	/aʃ/
	‘cold’	‘weight’	‘today’
/ʃʰ/ Palatal voiced aspirated stop.			
	/ʃʰəndʒa/	/murʃʰana/	/ʃʰāʃʰ/
	‘flag’	‘to wither’	‘cymbals’
/v/ Labiodental voiced fricative.			
	/vəʃən/ (alternative: /ʊəʃən/)	/pərvər/	/danəv/ (alternative: /danəʊ/)
	‘weight’	‘family’	‘demon’
/s/ Alveolar voiceless fricative.			
	/səmpəti/	/səsər/	/ʊpwas/
	‘property’	‘father-in-law’	‘fast’
/ʃ/ Palatal voiceless fricative.			
	/ʃəhed/	/cəʃma/	/goʃ/
	‘honey’	‘spectacles’	‘flesh’
/h/ Glottal voiced fricative			
	/hiʃra/	/bahija/	/grəh/
	‘eunuch’	‘flood’	‘planet’
/ɾ/ Alveolar Flap			
	/rakʰi/	/narɪjəl/	/ber/
	‘ash’	‘coconut’	‘berry’
/ɽ/ Retroflex unaspirated flap			
	---	/aɽi/	/kukuɽ/
		‘saw’	‘dog’
/l/ Alveolar Lateral.			
	/lɔŋ/	/gulab/	/tel/
	‘clove’	‘rose’	‘oil’
/j/ Palatal approximant			
	/jad/	/sejahi/	-----
	‘memory’	‘ink’	

2.3 Consonant Clusters

2.3.1 Double Consonant Clusters

/nd/	/tʰəndʒi/	‘cold’
/rv/	/pərvət/	‘mountain’
/rt/	/pərkɪtɪ/	‘nature’
/nk/	/kənkədʒi/	‘pebble’
/tʰv/	/prɪtʰvi/	‘world’

/hr/	/lehrə/	‘water’
/rd/	/gərdə/	‘dust’
/ɟl/	/biɟli/	‘lightning’
/rs/	/bərsa/	‘rain’
/sm/	/asman/	‘sky’
/lk/	/balki/	‘baby’
/ɽk/	/ləɽka/	‘boy’
/lh/	/dɔlha/	‘bridegroom’
/cp/	/bəcpəna/	‘childhood’
/tv/	/patva/	‘daughter-in-law’
/md ^h /	/səmd ^h i/	‘daughter-in-law’s father’
/tn/	/pətni/	‘wife’
/hr/	/mehraru/	‘woman’
/rg/	/mɔrga/	‘hen’
/lh/	/cilhar/	‘cold’

2.3.2 Triple consonant clusters

Some examples of triple consonant clusters observed are

/ntr/	/məntri/	‘minister’
/ŋkv/	/atəŋkvad/	‘terrorism’

Distribution of Consonant Clusters

Consonant Cluster at initial position of syllable (Onset)

Examples;

CC	Dehati	Gloss
br-	/bramda/	‘veranda’
tr-	/mistri/	‘mason’
kr-	/krisna/	‘a Hindi name’
pr-	/prem/	‘affection’
gr-	/grəh/	‘planet’
sw-	/swəst ^h /	‘health’

Consonant Cluster at final position of Syllable (Coda)

Examples

CC	Dehati	Gloss
-st	/dəst/	‘diarrhoea’
-st ^h	/swəst ^h /	‘health’
-st̪	/dust̪/	‘naughty’
-mb	/nimb/	‘neem’
-nd	/nənd/	‘sister-in-law’
-nd ^h	/sugənd ^h /	‘scent’
-nd̪	/dənd̪/	‘punishment’
-g	/pətəŋg/	‘kite’
-ɾp ^h	/bəɾp ^h /	‘ice’
-ɾb ^h	/gəɾb ^h /	‘pride’
-ɾc ^h	/kali m̪ɾc ^h /	‘black pepper’
-ɾd	/dəɾd/	‘pain’
-ŋk ^h	/səŋk ^h /	‘conch’
-ŋk ^h	/pəŋk ^h /	‘wing’
-tr	/pətrə/	‘letter’
-ɽk	/ləɽka/	‘boy’
-kr	/sukrə/	‘a planet’
-ʃr	/vaʃrə/	‘thunder’
-nʃ	/ʃətrənʃ/	‘chess’
-nc (alternative: -ɲc)	/rəŋgmənc/ (alternative: /rəŋgməɲc/)	‘stage’

Consonant Gemination

The following are the example of some geminated (identical consonant clusters)

/-pp-/	/t ^h əppəɽ marna/	‘to slap’
/-vv-/	/nəvva/	‘barber’
/-ll-/	/pilla/	‘puppy’
/-nn-/	/ənnaɪs/	‘nineteen’
/-cc-/	/məɾg ^h ɪn bæcca/	‘chick’
/-mm-/	/cimməcũ/	‘spoon’
/-tt-/	/mombətti/	‘wax candle’
/-t̪t̪-/	/k ^h əɽt̪t̪apən/	‘acidity’
/-kk-/	/mɛd̪ɔkka/	‘toad’
/-bb-/	/bəbbɔl/	‘babul’
/-d̪d̪-/	/gɔd̪d̪am/	‘button’
/-d̪d̪-/	/ɾɪt̪ hɛd̪d̪i/	‘spine’
/-rr-/	/sirri/	‘hip’

5. Syllabification

In Dehati syllabification is observed as

- i. Monosyllabic (consisting of one syllable)
- ii. Disyllabic (consisting of two syllables)
- iii. Trisyllabic (consisting of three syllables) and
- iv. Polysyllabic (consisting of more than three syllables)

Monosyllabic words

Monosyllabic words are those words which are consisting of only one syllable, for example-

V	/u:/	‘he’
VC	/am/	‘mango’
CV	/sɔ/	‘hundred’
CVC	/tap/	‘heat’
CVCCV	/vəʃrə/	‘thunder’
CCVC	/grəh/	‘planet’

Disyllabic words

Disyllabic words are those words which are consisting of two syllables. As follows;

V-CV	/ɪʃa/	‘bricks’
VC-CV	/ənʃa/	‘attic’
CV-CV	/kəp ^h i/	‘coffee’
V-CVC	/ɔrət/	‘woman’
CV-CVC	/ʃəban/	‘tongue’
CVC-CVC	/kərc ^h ul/	‘ladle’
CVC-CV	/kursi/	‘chair’
VC-CVC	/adrək ^h /	‘ginger’
CCVC-CV	/bramda/	‘veranda’

Trisyllabic words

Trisyllabic words are those words which are consisting of three syllables. It may be as follows in Dehati

Examples

CV-CV-CV	/hərija/	‘pot’
V-CV-CVC	/ʃəmanət ^h /	‘bail’
V-CV-CVC	/adalət/	‘court’

VC-CVC-CV	/əst ^h apna/	‘foundation’
CV-CVC-CV	/cəhəddi/	‘fence’
CVC-CV-CV	/tərkari/	‘vegetable’
CV-CV-CVC	/narɪjəl/	‘coconut’
CVC-CVC-CV	/mombətti/	‘wax candle’

Polysyllabic words

Polysyllabic words are those words which are consisting of more than three syllables. It may be as follows in Dehati;

CV-CV-CV-CV	/məlerɪja/	‘malaria’
V-CV-CV-CV	/əb ^h ineta/	‘actor’
VC-CV-CV-CV	/upcarika/	‘nurse’
CVC-CV-CV-CVC	/biddejalej/	‘school’

Open Syllable

Open syllables are those syllables which do not have a coda. In Dehati, it may be realized in monosyllabic, disyllabic, trisyllabic as well as polysyllabic word. As follows;

Examples;

CV	/sɔ/	‘hundred’
V-CV	/ɪʈa/	‘bricks’
CV-CV	/kap ^h i/	‘coffee’
CV-CV-CV	/hərija/	‘pot’
CV-CV-CV-CV	/məlerɪja/	‘malaria’
V-CV-CV-CV	/əb ^h ineta/	‘actor’

In the above table we may see how the open syllable occurs in monosyllabic words. We may also see how it is realized initially, medially and finally, in disyllabic, trisyllabic and polysyllabic words of Dehati. It is also evident from the above example that a word consisting three or more syllables may have only open syllable as its constituents.

Close Syllable

Close syllables are those syllables which have coda. In Dehati, a monosyllabic or disyllabic word may consist of only close syllables as follows;

Examples;

i)	VC	/am/	‘mango’
ii)	CVC	/tap/	‘heat’
iii)	CCVC	/grəh/	‘planet’
iv)	VC-CVC	/adrək ^h /	‘ginger’
v)	CVC-CVC	/kərc ^h ul/	‘ladle’

While in the case of words having more than three syllables, a close syllable must occur with at least an open syllable as in follows;

Examples

i)	CV-CVC-CV	/cəhəddi/	‘fence’
ii)	CVC-CV-CV	/tərkari/	‘vegetable’
iii)	CV-CV-CVC	/narijal/	‘coconut’
iv)	CVC-CVC-CV	/mombətti/	‘wax candle’
v)	CVC-CV-CV-CVC	/biddejaləj/	‘school’

In the above table we also see how a close syllables can be realized word initially, medially and finally, in trisyllabic and polysyllabic words of Dehati.

Suprasegmental features

Stress

A cursory look at the Dehati data shows that stress in Dehati is less significant and plays no role in distinguishing words. Stress pattern depends upon the nature of the syllable. Most of the time a heavy syllable (CVV or CVC) get stressed in comparison to light syllable (CV). In Dehati a word like /pat^hər/ meaning ‘rock’ can be pronounced as [ˈpat^hər] or [paˈt^hər] without changing the meaning of the word. In the world languages stress may be primary, secondary and tertiary in nature. Examples of primary stress in Dehati are given below:

All monosyllabic words are stressed in Dehati, for example

[ˈu:]	‘he’
[ˈam]	‘mango’
[ˈlal]	‘red’

In mono-morphemic disyllabic words of Dehati, the first syllable is generally stressed without carrying the weight of the second syllable.

Examples

[ˈləkɾi]	‘wood’
[ˈmɔsəm]	‘weather’

[ˈgʰaɪ]	‘valley’
---------	----------

The penultimate syllable of most trisyllabic words are also stressed.

Examples

[aˈdalət]	‘court’
[təlˈvari]	‘sword’
[haˈtʰejar]	‘weapon’

In four syllable words stress is observed mostly on second syllable

Examples

[məˈlerɪja]	‘malaria’
[əˈbʰineta]	‘actor’

In words with diphthongs, stress is observed on the syllable which has diphthong.

Examples

[dəˈvai]	‘medicine’
[ˈpaɪʃama]	‘trousers’
[ˈbəuna]	‘dwarf’

3. MORPHOLOGY

Dehati is an inflectional language. That means, here words are formed by adding syllables or letters (i.e. affixes), or different postpositions to the stem, or different endings are used to form different types of words and these affixes may show no traceable signs of being independent entities.

Word Formation:

The processes of word formation observed in Dehati are as follows:

4.1. i Affixation

In this process, an affix is attached to a word stem to form a new word. In Dehati, the affixes added to form familial relations are of inflectional nature, tending to preserve the grammatical class of the base to which it is attached. Words are formed by adding prefixes or suffixes to base as in –

Base	Suffix	
/hat ^h / ‘hand’	/-kəɽi/	/hat ^h kəɽi/ ‘handcuffs’
/dos/ ‘fault’	/nɪr-/	/nɪrdos/ ‘innocent’
/pan/ ‘betel leaf’	/-vari/	/panvari/ ‘betel leaf seller’
/cɪtr/ ‘picture’	/-kar/	/cɪtrkar/ ‘picture /maker/ ‘painter’
/sɪkar/ ‘hunt’	/-i/	/sɪkari/ ‘hunter’

4.1. ii Reduplication

In general reduplication is referred to the repetition of any linguistics item that is phoneme, morpheme, word, phrase, sentence etc. In particular reduplication is a morphological process in which a root or stem or part of it is repeated. It may be partial or full. If reduplication is partial then it’s known as echo formation.

/baɽe/ + /baɽe/ → /baɽe baɽe/ (lit. big big) ‘big’

/vāhā doi bəɽe gaō hē/
‘There are two big villages.’

Compounding

Compounding is a process of word formation in which two or more words with independent existence, or two head words are attached together to make them one word. E.g.

/mom/ 'wax' /bətti/ 'light/bulb' /mombətti/ 'wax candle'

/rel/ 'rail' /gaʃi/ 'vehicle' /relgaʃi/ 'train'

Word Class

Word class refers to the category of words made according to their use. Dehati shows the following classes.

Nouns

Noun is a part of speech which denotes a person, place, thing, animal or idea.

<i>Examples;</i>	/rak ^{hi} /	'ash'
	/ciʃaɪja/	'bird'
	/bok ^{har} /	'fever'
	/ram/	'Ram'
	/hirən/	'deer'
	/dɔlhēn/	'bride'
	/aɪ/	'fire'

Pronouns

A grammatical component referring to a noun formerly mentioned and thus serving a deictic or anaphoric function.

<i>Examples</i>	/tʊm/	'you'
	/həmra/	'my'
	/tohar/	'your'
	/mɛ/	'I',
	/ve/	'she',
	/təm/	'you',
	/ham/	'we''

Verbs

Verb is a part of speech which denotes an action or action process, whether ongoing, completed or undergone.

<i>Examples</i>	/piʈna/	'to beat'
	/morna/	'to bend'

/kaṭna/	‘to bite’
/b ^h ṣkna/	‘to bark’
/k ^h olna/	‘to open’
/karna/	‘to do’
/baṣana/	‘to beat’
/k ^h ana/	‘to eat’

Adjectives

Adjective is a part of speech which has the main syntactic role to qualify a noun or noun phrase and gives more information about the object.

Examples

/catur/	‘big’
/k ^h ali/	‘empty’
/acc ^h a/	‘good’
/b ^h ari/	‘heavy’
/lal/	‘red’
/sahsi/	‘brave’

Adverbs

Adverb is a word that changes or qualifies the meaning of the verb.

Examples

/d ^h ire se/	‘slowly’
/ḥaldi se/	‘fast’
/sada/	‘always’
/aḥ/	‘today’
/səp ^h ai se/	‘neatly’
/ḍḍja purvək/	‘kindly’

Postpositions

Postposition is the part of speech that shows the relation of the noun or pronoun to some other word in a sentence.

Examples

/pe/	‘in’
/pic ^h e/	‘behind’
/le/	‘with/ from’
/pas mē/	‘by’

/satʰ/	‘with’
/kʰəle/	‘below’

Conjunctions

Conjunction is a part of speech that joins two sentences. It functions as a connector which joins two syntactic element of equal rank.

Examples

/ɔɾ/	‘and’
/ɪslije/	‘hence’
/nəɦĩ to/	‘otherwise’

Interjections

Interjection is a part of speech that shows some kind of emotion or sentiment in a sentence. There is not any clear cut evidence of interjection in Dehati. Exclamatory sentences are being created without interjection words.

Examples:

/tum kɪtne ləmbə ho gəje ho/

‘How tall you have grown!’

/voh abʰi bʰi ʃəvan lagət hɛ/

‘He seems still young!’

These all word classes can be broadly divided into two categories

- Declinable, which decline for number, gender, person etc. and
- Indeclinable, which do not decline for number, gender, person etc.

4.3 Noun Morphology

A noun is a member of a syntactic class that includes words which refer to people, places, things, ideas, or concepts, whose members may act as any of the following: subjects of the verb, objects of the verb, indirect object of the verb, or object of a preposition or postposition. Noun Morphology deals with the forms and classification of Nouns, Pronouns and their declensional/ inflectional pattern in association with Gender, Number, and Adjective etc.

The nouns in the language are marked by two numbers (singular and plural), three genders (i.e. masculine, feminine and neuter); and seven cases (nominative, accusative, dative, ablative, genitive, locative and instrumental).

4.3. i Nouns

In Dehati, nouns are marked by two numbers (singular and plural). Nouns thus realised in Dehati can be categorized into two broad classes, namely 1. Basic Nouns and 2. Derived nouns

a) Basic Nouns

Basic Nouns are those which are a class by itself as they are not derived from any other word class. E.g.

/nil gəj/	‘deer’
/kokɔr/	‘dog’
/gədiha/	‘donkey’
/kecvə/	‘earthworm’
/andə/	‘egg’
/mac ^h ari/	‘fish’
/mamak ^h i/	‘fly’
/lomari/	‘fox’
/god ^h a/	‘horse’
/sīg/	‘horn’
/b ^h asa/	‘language’
/gada/	‘club’
/təlvar/	‘dagger’
/sejahi/	‘ink’

The basic nouns can further be divided into a) Mass nouns and b) Count nouns.

i) **Mass Nouns**- Mass nouns are those which do not show number distribution and cannot be counted with cardinal numeral. They always occur in singular form.
e.g.

/goʃai/	‘barley’
/kari/	‘curry’
/mas/	‘flesh’
/aʃa/	‘flour’
/k ^h ana/	‘food’
/dahi/	‘curd’
/id ^h an/	‘fuel’
/g ^h i/	‘ghee’
/kap ^h i/	‘coffee’
/b ^h at/	‘cooked rice’
/d̪əhjo/	‘curd’
/hiŋg/	‘asafetida’

ii) **Count Nouns**- Count nouns are those which can take some suffixes for indicating plurality.

Examples are

/mac ^h ari/	‘fish’
/mamak ^h i/	‘flu’
/lomad̪i/	‘fox’
/ser/	‘lion’
/god ^h a/	‘horse’
/s̪iŋ/	‘horn’
/pətta/	‘leaf’
/ə̃d̪a/	‘egg’
/mæc ^h əli/	‘fish’

External Structure- The Dehati nouns are inflected for Gender, Number, and Case. This language has three genders (i.e. masculine, feminine and neuter); and seven cases (nominative, accusative, dative, ablative, genitive, locative and instrumental). The following description gives the details of Dehati gender, number and case system.

A) Gender

Gender in Dehati is grammatically determined by two ways – Masculine and feminine. In most of the cases gender is marked lexically. However, it is also derived by suffixation, suppletion or phonological change in Dehati. In Dehati, gender marking is realized as follows;

i) The gender properties inherent in individual lexical items.

Examples;

Masculine		Feminine	
/admi/	‘male’	/mahila/	‘female’
/potr/	‘son’	/b̪ɪtua/	‘daughter’
/ləɽka/	‘boy’	/beɽi/	‘girl’
/bap/	‘father’	/mataɽi/	‘mother’
/gae/	‘cow’	/bail/	‘bull’

ii) Gender marking done through suffixation (with or without any modification).

Examples;

Masculine		Feminine	
/pati/	‘husband’	/patni/	‘wife’
/mɔsi/	‘mother’s sister’	/mɔsiua/	‘mother’s sister’s husband’
/dɔlha/	‘bridegroom’	/dɔlhɪn/	‘bride’
/samd ^{hi} /	‘son-in-law’s father’	/samd ^{hi} ɪnɪ/	‘son-in-law’s mother’
/nənd/	‘husband’s sister’	/nəndoi/	‘husband’s sister’s husband’
/b ^h atiʃ/	‘brother’s son’	/b ^h atiʃi/	‘brother’s daughter’

iii) Gender marking done through final vowel modification.

Examples;

Masculine		Feminine	
/pota/	‘grandson’	/poti/	‘granddaughter’
/nana/	‘grandfather’	/nani/	‘grandmother’
/sɔtela/	‘step’	/sɔteli/	‘step’
/lɛŋra/	‘cripple’	/lɛŋri/	‘cripple’
/gɔ̃ga/	‘dumb’	/gɔ̃gi/	‘dumb’

Number

Number which refers to a grammatical category marked morphologically at the noun or noun phrases. Number can be either singular or plural and can be represented as a binary valued feature [$\pm$ pl]. Singular or [-pl] is the default value for number which is morphologically unexpressed while the non-default value [+pl] may be phonologically realized. Number in Dehati realized differently for different nouns. The detail of that realization can be observed as follows;

Zero Modification

Number marking in Dehati may be realized through *Zero Modification*. It realized in Dehati as follows;

Singular		Plural	
/hat ^h /	‘hand’	/hat ^h /	‘hands’
/cirja/	‘bird’	/cirja/	‘bird’

Vowel Modification

Number marking in Dehati may also be realized through *Vowel change*. It is realized in Dehati as follows;

Singular		Plural	
/ləṭka/	‘boy’	/ləṭke/	‘boys’
/bəcca/	‘child’	/bəcce/	‘children’
/g ^h oṭa/	‘horse’	/g ^h oṭo/	‘horses’

Suffixation

Number marking in Dehati may also be realized through *Suffixation*. It is realized in Dehati as follows;

Singular		Plural	
/g ^h ər/	‘house’	/g ^h ərō/	‘houses’
/āk ^h /	‘eye’	/āk ^h e/	‘eyes’
/rɪstedar/	‘guest’	/rɪstedaran/	‘guests’
/ləṭki/	‘girl’	/ləṭkiṭjā/	‘girls’
/kɪtab/	‘book’	/kɪtabē/	‘books’

Person

Person in nouns, is not marked morphologically in Dehati (as opposed to pronouns). Unlike, number which is manifested overtly as inflections in nouns, person is not marked overtly. But rather is marked covertly. Person is discussed in detail in the section on Pronouns.

Case

Case or case marker is a grammatical category which establishes various kind of relationship among the noun phrase(s) in the sentence with the help of the semantic value of the verb. Like other languages, in Dehati also, semantic relation between a noun phrase(s) or

subject and a predicate is expressed by the grammatical category of case. It may or may not be marked morphologically. The following cases are observed in Dehati.

- Nominative Case
- Accusative Case
- Dative Case
- Instrumental Case
- Ablative Case
- Genitive Case
- Locative Case

Nominative Case

In Dehati, the marker for nominative is null (/Ø/).

Examples

/voh	baʃar	ʃati	hɛ/
<i>She-3Sg-Nom</i>	<i>market</i>	<i>v-go-3Sg</i>	<i>aux</i>

‘She goes to the market’.

/voh	ʊdʰar	kʰaʃi	hɛ/
<i>She-3Sg-Nom</i>	<i>there</i>	<i>v-stand-3Sg</i>	<i>aux</i>

‘She stands there’

/sərkər	gəriban-ka	pəɪsa	det	hɛ/
<i>‘Government-3Sg-Nom</i>	<i>poor-Dat</i>	<i>money</i>	<i>v-give-3Sg</i>	<i>aux</i>

‘The Government gives money to poor.’

As it is evident from above examples, /voh/ ‘*She*’ and /sarkar/ ‘*government*’ are the subjects with nominative case with zero case marker attached. Thus we see here that the nominative case marker is not present.

Accusative Case

Accusative case is the case in nominative-accusative languages that marks certain syntactic functions, usually direct objects. In Dehati, the marker for Accusative is null (/Ø/) or /-ko/ and /-ka/.

Examples;

/mẽ roʈj kʰata hõ/

I-1Sg-Nom bread-Acc v-eat aux

‘I eat bread.’

/ham ɡarua-ko marte hẽ/

We-1pl-Nom cow-Acc v-beat aux

‘We beat the cows.’

/voh baʃar mẽ cor-ka pakrɪn rahẽ/

theu-3Sg-Nom market in thief-Acc v-catch-pst aux

‘They caught the thief in market.’

/sikari hirənk pəkrɪn rəhe/

‘The hunter caught the deer’

/həm ɡəijənk marit hẽ/

‘We beat the cows’

Dative Case

The dative case designates the indirect object of a transitive verb. Nouns having the role of recipient (as of things given), beneficiary of an action, or possessor of an item are datives. The context plays a crucial factor in differentiating between dative and accusative. In Dehati, the dative markers is /-ko/ or /-ka/.

Examples;

/ram-ne suam-ko kitab dɪhɪs/

ram-3Sg-Erg sheuam-Dat book v-give-pst

‘Ram gave the book to Shuam.’

/sita-ne məhmanən-ka k^hana parsIs/
sita-3Sg-Erg guests-Dat food v-feed-pst
 ‘Sita served the food to the guests’

Instrumental Case

This case is used to denote instrument with which action is performed. In Dehati, the Instrumental case marker is realized as /-se/ as in follows;

Examples;

/hamre kalam-se lik^hue/
I-Gen pen-Ins v-write-Imp.
 ‘Write with mu pen’

/kēci-se balan-ka katIs/
Scissors-Ins hair v-cut-pst
 ‘The hair is cut with scissors.’

/ram həmre kələmse ciṭṭ^hi lik^hin/
 ‘Ram wrote the letter with mu pen’

Ablative Case

Ablative case is a case that expresses movement of the subject or the object from one place to another either at the spatial plane or at the temporal plane is expressed by the ablative case. In Dehati ablative case marker is /-se/ as in following.

Examples;

/ʃəlai ke mahine-se barsat sərɔs hoti hɛ/
Jul of month-Abl rain v-start-Hab aux
 ‘Rain starts from the month of July.’

/bɪrva-se patta girat hẽ/
Tree-Abl leaf v-fall aux
 ‘The leaves fall from the tree.’

/o həmri kʰirkis gir gja/
 ‘He fell down from mu window’

/lərkja birvəs pʰəl torin/
 ‘The child plucked the fruit from the tree’

/mohən bəʃarse meʃ kʰəridin/
 ‘Mohan bought the table from the market’

Genitive Case or Possessive Case

Genitive case is a case in which the referent of the marked noun is the possessor of the referent of another noun. This case expresses the meaning of belonging to or possession of something by the subject. It is also known as *possessive case*. In Dehati, the Genitive case markers are realized as follows;

Examples;

/hamre bacce ɪskʊl mǎ hẽ/
I-Gen children school in v-be
 ‘My children are in the school.’

/ueh sab hamre qʰər hẽ/
these all vI-Gen. houses v-be
 ‘These are my houses.’

/ʊi səb həmri kitabə hẽ/
those all vI-Gen books v-be
 ‘Those are my books’.

Locative Case

Locative case is a case that expresses location at the referent of the noun it marks. The location of the subject or object is expressed by the *locative case marker*. In Dehati, the locative case marker is realized as in follows;

Examples;

/hamre bacce iskəl-mā hẽ/

I-Gen children school-Loc v-be

‘My children are in the school.’

/tota bīrva-par hẽ/

Parrot tree-Loc. v-be

‘The parrot is on the tree’

/sitane bəgm̩ pəise rəkk^he/

Sita-Erg bag-Loc money kept

‘Sita kept the money inside the purse’

Ergative Case

Ergativity, ‘.... grammatical pattern in which the subject of an intransitive clause is treated in the same way as the object of a transitive clause, and differently from transitive subject (Dixon 1994:1) in Dehati is depicted as under.

Example

/ram-ne suam-ko kItab dIhIs/

ram-3Sg-Erg sheuam-Dat book v-give-pst

‘Ram gave the book to Shuam.’

/sita-ne rīstedaran-ka k^hana parsIs/

sita-3Sg-Erg guests-Dat food v-feed-pst

‘Sita served the food to the guests’

Pronoun

A closed category used in grammatical category which can substitute a noun phrase or a single noun are known as Pronoun. Pronouns can take number, gender and case markers like

the noun they substituted for. A language may have several classes of pronouns. In Dehati, we may observe following types of pronouns;

- Personal Pronouns
- Demonstrative Pronouns
- Reflexive Pronouns
- Interrogative Pronouns
- Indefinite Pronouns

Personal Pronoun

In Dehati personal pronouns are being categorized according to *person*, *number* and *gender*. It may be realized as follows;

Person	Singular	plural
First	/ham/ 'me/ 'I'	/ham/ 'we'
Second	/təm/ 'you'	/ap/, /təm (-log)(-pən)/ 'you'
Third	/ɜ/, /voh/, /va/, /je/ 'he'	/voi/, /je/ 'they'

Demonstrative Pronoun

Demonstratives refer to those pronouns that point out an intended referent. In other words demonstrative pronoun are deictic word that specify which entities a speaker refers to, and differentiates those from others. In Dehati, we may differentiate demonstrative pronoun according to the *Number* and *Proximity*. It may be realized as follows;

	Singular	Plural
Proximate	/je/, /jẽ/ 'this'	/i/ , /jeh/, /jah/ 'these'
Remote	/voh/ or /ɜ/ or /va/ 'that'	/je/, /vi/, /ɜi/ or /vɛ/ 'those'

Examples;

/ueh k^hae ke laek nahi hɛ/

'This is not edible.'

/uoh ac^he səbd nəhĩ hɛ/

'These are not good words.'

/ʊ gʰoɾa bẽca ʃauega/

‘That horse is to be sold.’

/vɛ lʈkɪuũ sɔndar hẽ/

‘Those girls are beautiful.’

/jũ hæmar roʃʊk kʰana hɛ/

‘This is my usual food’

/u əɖəmi mət hɛ/

‘That man is fat’

/ʋi pẽc səktisali hɛ/

‘Those men are strong’

/i: səb hæmar gʰər ai/

‘These are my houses’

/je kitab pəɾʰe/

‘read this book ’

/va ek gʰoɾa hai/

‘that is a horse’

/i acʰi kahani hẽ/

‘These are good stories’

/je log saktisali hẽ/

‘those men are strong’

/ham jaha ata hũ/

1.SG here come be-PRS

‘I come here’

tɔm idar av-o

2.SG here come-PRS

‘you (sg) come here’

There –

kɔtva ɔva kʰaɖa he

dog there stand-CON be-PRS

‘The dog is standing there’

vo vaha kʰaɖi he

3.SG there stand be-PRS

She stands there.

Reflexive Pronoun

A reflexive pronoun is a pronoun that is preceded by the noun to which it refers within the same clause. A reflexive pronoun is an anaphor that must be bound by its antecedent in its local domain. In Dehati it may be observed as follows;

Person	Singular	plural
First	/kʰɔd/ ‘myself’	/kʰɔd/ ‘ourselves’
Second	/kʰɔd/ ‘yourself’	/kʰɔd/ ‘yourselves’
Third (M)	/kʰɔd/,/kʰɔdai/ ‘himself’	/kʰɔd/,/kʰɔdai/ ‘themselves’
Third (F)	/kʰɔd/,/kʰɔdai/ ‘herself’	

Examples;

/mẽne ueh patanɔ kʰud banaua he/

‘I made the kite myself.’

/təm ueh kapɽe kʰɔd dʰovo/

‘You wash the clothes yourself.’

/vah maɽka kʰɔd ɔʰai/

‘She lifted the pot herself.’

ham kʰɔdai kapɽacʰãɽ-liti hẽ

‘You wash the clothes yourself’

/vah apni paɽʰai kʰɔd kɪhIn hẽ/

‘He studied the lessons himself.’

vo kʰɔdai miɽka ɔʰai lehe i

‘She lifted the pot herself’

vo kʰɔdai mari geɟ

It died by itself

vo kʰɔdai apan ɣʰar bana-ji rahe

‘They built the house themselves’

In Dehati, relative pronoun is realized as follows;

/ueh vohi admi hɛ ʃisse mẽ ne kal mɪla tʰa/

‘This is the man whom i met yesterday.’

/ueh vohi admi hɛ ʃiski kal kamiʃ coraɪ ɣɛ rəhe/

‘This is the man whose shirt was stolen last night.’

/uah vahe ʃaɣah hɛ ʃahã ɣalua carat hẽ/

‘That is the place where the cows graze.’

Interrogative Pronoun

An interrogative pronoun is used to ask questions. The interrogative pronouns observed in Dehati are as follows;

/kab/	‘when’
/ka/	‘what’
/kɪska/ , /kinka/	‘whose’
/kahã/	‘where’
/ kɔj /	‘Who’
/kahe/	‘why’

It is realized as in the following examples;

/õi kɔj/
‘Who is he?’

/tɔmhara nao kja hɛ/
‘What is your name?’

/ʊ kɪska ɡʰoɽa hɛ/
‘Whose horse is that?’

/ʊ kinka ɡʰoɽa hɛ/
‘Whose horse is that?’

/ap ke laɽka kahã hẽ/
‘Where are your children?’

Indefinite Pronoun

The pronouns which are used to denote some non-definite person or thing instead of definite person or thing are called Indefinite pronouns. In Dehati indefinite pronoun is realized as follows;

Anybody

i	kam	sab koi	kər səkte hẽ
PRX.SG	work	anybody	can do be-PRS
‘Anybody can do this work’			

No one

jo pətar koi nai ʈʰaj səkət hɛ
 PRX.SG stone **No one** lift can .NEG be-PRS
 ‘No one can lift this stone’

Nobody

jo pətar koi nai ʈʰaj səkət hɛ
 PRX stone **Nobody** lift can.NEG be-PRS
 Nobody this work can do
 ‘Nobody can do this work’

Anyone

təmre mai se kam koi nai kar səkət hɛ
 1SG.PRX work Anyone can –do be-PRS
 Anyone can do this work

c) Person

The first, second and third person in Dehati have concordant relationship with the verb, tense and moods. Tense markers also change according to different persons (first, second and third persons). For example,

Person	Singular	Plural
First	ham (I)	ham (we)
Second	təm (you)	təmpən (you Pl)
Third	ʊ, va, je (he/she/it)	voi (they)

The different concordant relationships are shown below-

First Person: [Singular]

/həm cirəija d̪ekʰit hɛ/ ‘I see the bird’ [marker is – it] (present tense).
 /həm cirəija d̪ekʰe rəhən/ ‘I saw the bird’ [marker is – kʰe] (past tense).

First Person: [Plural]

/həm bəfar ʃait hɛ/ ‘We go to the market’ [marker is – it] (present tense).
 /həm bəfar ge rəhən/ ‘We went to the market’ [marker is – ge] (past tense).
 /həm bəfar ʃəibɛ/ ‘We will go to the market’ [marker is – bɛ] (future tense).

Second Person: [Singular]

/tum bəʃar ʃat hjo/ 'You (sg) go to the market' [marker is – jo] (present tense).

/tum bəʃar ge rəho/ 'You (sg) went to the market' [marker is – ho] (past tense).

Second Person: [Plural]

/tumpən bəʃar ʃat hjo/ 'You (pl) go to the market' [marker is – jo] (present tense).

/tum pəʃ bəʃar ge rəho / 'You (pl) went to the market' [marker is – ho] (past tense).

/tumpən cirəija ɖəkʰiho/ 'You (pl) will see the bird' [marker is –ho] (future tense).

Third Person: [Singular]

/u cirəija ɖəkʰət hɛ/ 'He sees the bird' [marker is – ət] (present tense).

/u cirəija ɖəkʰis rəhe/ 'He saw the bird' [marker is – is] (past tense).

/va cirəija ɖəkʰi/ 'She will see the bird' [marker is – kʰi] (future tense).

Third Person: [Plural]

/voi bəʃar ʃat hɛ/ 'They (men) go to the market' [marker is – hɛ] (present tense).

/va bəʃar gəje rəhe/ 'They went to the market' [marker is – hɛ] (past tense).

/voi pən cirəija ɖəkʰhɛ/ 'They will see the bird' [marker is – hɛ] (future tense).

Verb morphology

Verb Morphology deals with the forms of verbs and their declensional/ inflectional pattern in association with Tense, Aspect, Mood, etc. Verbs in Dehati can be of different type, depending upon the nature and form of verbs. Dehati verb in terms of complexity can be divided into two i.e. basic verb stem and complex verb which further can be divided into several sub groups such as primary, conjunct and compound verb. Dehati verbs in terms of use may be of helping verb or main verb. While in terms of agreement feature Dehati verbs are divided into two that is finite and non-finite verbs. In terms of uses it may be of several types. These can be described under the following headings;

Verbs in terms of Uses

Verb which denotes action can be of several types in terms of uses. Verb in terms of uses in Dehati are as follows.

- **Physical activity Verbs-** Following are the examples of physical verb which is reported in the data.

Verb	Glossary
/b ^h ʒkna/	‘to bark (as a dog)’
/piṭna/	‘to beat (somebody)’
/morna/	‘to bend (stick)’
/bāḍ ^h na/	‘to bind’
/kaṭna /	‘to bite’
/sar par ladenā/	‘to carry (in hand)’
/pakaḍna/	‘to catch ‘
/ṭ ^h okna/	‘to cover’
/tali baṛana/	‘to clap (the hands)’
/sap ^h karna/	‘to clean’
/bandī karna/	‘to close (a bag)’
/ik ^h aṭa karna/	‘to collect (scattered thing)’

- **Instrument Verbs-** Following are the examples of instrumental verb which is reported in the data.

Verb	Glossary
/ləkṛi kaṭna/	‘chop (fire wood)’
/kəṛṭa kaṭna/	‘cut (cloth)’
/gaḍḍ ^h a k ^h odna/	‘dig (a hole)’
/cōr karna/	‘pound (e.g. grain)’

- **Verbs of Fighting-** Following are the examples of fighting verb which is reported in the data.

Verb	Glossary
/həmla kərna/	‘to attack’
/harna/	‘to defeat’

/rac ^h a kərna/	‘to defend’
/laṛa k rna/	‘to fight (with each other)’
/dabocna/	‘to grab’

- **Music Verbs-** Following are the examples of music verb which is reported in the data.

Verb	Glossary
/ḍ ^h ol baḥana/	‘to beat a drum’
/bāsəri baḥana/	‘to play the flute’
/gana gana/	‘to sing a song’
/nacna/	‘to dance’

- **Motion Verbs-** Following are the examples of motion verb which is reported in the data.

Verb	Glossary
/ḥagna/	‘to get up (arise)’
/dena/	‘to give’
/ḥana/	‘to go’
/caro or ḥana/	‘to go around’
/ṭḍna/	‘to fly (as a bird)’
/bahar ḥana/	‘to go out of (a house)’

- **Occupational Verbs-** Following are the examples of occupational verb which is reported in the data.

Verb	Glossary
/sarab banana/	‘to brew (alcohol)’
/ilaḥ karna/	‘to cure (an illness)’
/citrə banana/	‘to carve/paint a figure/picture’
/sap ^h karna/	‘to clean’
/kəpṛa raḥna/	‘to dye cloth’

- **Culinary Verbs-** Following are the examples of culinary verb which is reported in the data.

Verb	Glossary
/k ^h ana banana/	‘to cook food’
/pina/	‘to drink’
/k ^h ana/	‘to eat’
/pisna/	‘to grind’
/milana/	‘to mix’

- **Cosmetic Verbs-** Following are the examples of cosmetic verb which is reported in the data.

Verb	Glossary
/kaŋg ^h i karna/	‘to comb (hair)’
/bal bāḍ ^h na/	‘to tie (hair)’

- **Communication Verbs-** Following are the examples of communication verb which is reported in the data.

Verb	Glossary
/ɕttar dena/	‘to answer’
/pɕc ^h na/	‘to ask (to question)’
/bɕlana/	‘to call’
/carca karna/	‘to discuss’
/samʃ ^h ana/	‘to explain’

- **Non Motion Verbs-** Following are the examples of non-motion verb which is reported in the data.

Verb	Glossary
/cɕp rahna/	‘to be silent’
/ɕd ^h ar lena/	‘to borrow’

/ʃalana/	‘to burn (trans)’
/cɔ̃nna/	‘to choose (out of several)’

- **Inchoative Verbs-** Following are the examples of inchoative verbs which is reported in the data.

Verb	Glossary
/pakana/	‘to dry in sun’
/gaɾ ^h a karna/	‘to thicken (soup or gravy)’

- **Cognitive Verbs-** Following are the examples of cognitive verb which is reported in the data.

Verb	Glossary
/bɪsvas karna/	‘to believe’
/g ^h ɪrno/	‘to count’
/sɔ̃cna/	‘to think’
/sapna dek ^h na/	‘to dream’
/b ^h ɔ̃lɪ ʃana/	‘to forget’

- **Sensory Verbs-** Following are the examples of sensory verb which is reported in the data.

Verb	Glossary
/sɔ̃nna/	‘to hear’
/hasna/	‘to laugh’
/dek ^h na/	‘to look’
/paɾ ^h na/	‘to read’
/sona/	‘to sleep’

- **Emotive Verbs-** Following are the examples of emotive verb which is reported in the data.

Verb	Glossary
/gəle lagna/	‘to embrace’
/pesand kərna/	‘to like’
/dərd hona /	‘to pain’
/cillana/	‘to scream’

Verbs in terms of Function

- **Auxiliary Verbs-** Auxiliary verbs generally follows the main. The auxiliary verbs in Dehati are of two types. They are *Primary auxiliary* and *modal auxiliary* as in follows.

Examples;

/mẽ id^har a raha hũ/

‘I am coming here.’

/kərkər ud^har k^haṛa hɛ/

‘The dog is standing there.’

/vi ab^hi b^hi a sakte hẽ/

‘He may still come.’

/tumka d̥oi kela k^haI ke cahi/

‘You should eat two bananas.’

In above sentences / hũ / and /hɛ/ in the first two sentences have been used as a primary auxiliary in Dehati. It changes its form according to the agreement with the subject. While, /sakte/ and /cahi/ in last two examples are *modal auxiliaries* in Dehati.

- **Main Verbs-** Main verb is a type of verb which denotes an action, event or state. It is also known as full verb. A main verb cannot be in a negative form as opposed to the auxiliary verbs which in contrast can be in the same. In Dehati, main verb is realized as in following example, where ‘a’ and ‘k^haṛa’ have been used as main verb.

Examples;

/mẽ id^har a raha hũ/

‘I am coming here.’

/kukur ud^har k^haṛa hẽ/

‘The dog is standing there.’

Verbs in Terms of Forms

Verbs in Dehati can be of different type, depending upon their structural complexity and form. Dehati verbs in terms of structural complexity may be divided into two i.e. basic verb base (primary and derived) and complex verb base (conjunct and compound).

- **Primary bases-** Primary bases are those bases of verb which stand on their own and they are not derived from any other bases. In Dehati, it is realized as follows;

Example;

/hasna/ ‘to laugh’

/sona/ ‘to sleep’

/sɔ̃nna/ ‘to see’

- **Derived bases-** Derived bases are those bases which are formed by adding various kinds of derivative suffixes to the verbal or non-verbal stem. Causatives are examples of derived bases. In Dehati it realized as following example;

Example;

/k^hilana/ ‘to feed’

/karvana/ ‘to make work’

/hasana/ ‘to make laugh’

- **Conjunct bases-** Conjunct bases are those bases that involve the combination of a substantive (i.e., nouns and adjectives) and a verb stem. In Dehati it realized as following example;

/naṣṭ karna/ ‘to destroy’

/sap^h karna/ ‘to clean’

/pasand karna/ ‘to like’

/dard hona/ ‘to pain’

- **Compound Bases-** Compound bases are those bases that involve combinations of two verb-stems. In Dehati it realized as following example;

Example;

/bɛh ʃana/	‘to float’
/ʃʰagɾa karna/	‘to quarrel’
/gʰɔser dena/	‘to pierce’
/cʰor dena/	‘to release’

Verbs in terms of Transitivity

The number of arguments that a verb takes is called its *transitivity*. Based on transitivity the verb stems of Dehati can be further divided into three sub-classes as follows.

- **Intransitives-** Those verbs which do not take any object.

Examples;

/hasna/	‘to laugh’
/ana/	‘to arrive’
/ həsət/	‘smiles’
/ girət/	‘fall’

As in following examples;

Examples;

/mẽ gʰar ʃalt hẽ/

‘I go to the house.’

/lɜrka həsət hɛ /

‘the boy smiles’

/lɜrkja girət hɛ/

‘The boy falls’

- **Transitive Verbs-** The transitive verb takes an argument as object.

Examples;

/sɔnna/	‘to hear’
/paɾʰna/	‘to read’
/kʰana/	‘to eat’
/ ɔbalna/	‘to boil’

As in the following sentences;

Examples;

/vo ek kItab paṛʰta hɛ/

‘He reads a book.’

/mẽ roʈi kʰata hũ/

‘I eat bread’

/vo pani ɔbalət hɛ/

‘He boils water’

- **Ditransitive-** Those verbs which take three arguments are referred to as *transitive verb*. This kind of verb takes one argument as subject, one as direct object and one as indirect object.

- *Examples;*

/dena/ ‘to give’

/kʰaridna/ ‘to buy’ etc.

- As in following example;

Examples;

/ram ne sjæm ko kItab dIhIs/

‘Ram gave the book to shyam.’

Verbs in terms of Finiteness

- **Finite verbs-** A finite verb is a form of a verb that has a subject (expressed or implied) and can function as the root of an independent clause, an independent clause can in turn stand alone as a complete sentence. Finite verb consists of a stem followed by mood, tense and aspect markers which are further followed by person, gender and number markers. These person, gender and number markers maintain agreement with the subject or object in a sentence and vary according to their person, gender and number markers. Types of finite verb in Dehati and their inflection system further have been discussed under heading that is ‘*Inflection on Finite Verbs*’.
- **Non-finites-** A non-finite verb or verbals are any of several verb forms which cannot serve as the root of an independent clause. It functions either as a verbal noun or verbal adjectives.

Examples;

/terna/	‘to swim’
/k ^h ana/	‘to eat’
/banana/	‘to make’

Inflection on Finite Verbs

As it is discussed above finite verb consists of a stem followed by mood, tense and aspect markers which are further followed by person, gender and number markers. These person, gender and number markers maintain agreement with the subject or object in a sentence and vary according to their person, gender and number markers.

Tense

Tense is an effort to locate or identify an action in the time scale as Hockett defines the tense as “a grammatical category showing different locations of an event in time” (Hockett, 1970, pp-167). Verbs in Dehati is marked morphologically for having three way opposition of tense as

- Present Tense
- Past Tense
- Future Tense

Now, let us observe it in the following heading with reference to Dehati and see the way in which the verbs are inflected for all three tenses according to *number, person* and *gender*.

Present Tense

It indicates the action that takes place when the utterance is uttered. Accordingly, the present tense person wise is formed in the following way.

Person	Singular	plural
First	dek ^h -ta hũ ‘See-pres. Simp.1S’	dek ^h -te hẽ ‘See-pres. Simp.1pl’
Second	dek ^h -te ho ‘See-pres. Simp.2S’	dek ^h -te hẽ ‘See-pres. Simp.2pl’
Third (M)	dek ^h -ta he ‘See-pres. Simp.3MS’	dek ^h -te hẽ ‘See-pres. Simp.3pl’
Third (F)	dek ^h -ti he ‘See-pres. Simp.3FS’	

As in following examples;

Examples;

/mẽ cɪraɪja dek^hta hũ/

‘I see the bird.’

/ham cɪraɪja dek^hte hẽ/

‘We see the bird.’

/tum cɪraɪja dek^hte ho/

‘You (sg) see the bird.’

/ap cɪraɪja dek^hte hẽ/

‘You (pl) see the bird.’

/vah cɪraɪja dek^hta hɛ/

‘He sees the bird.’

/vah cɪraɪja dek^hti hɛ/

‘She sees the bird.’

/vɛ cɪraɪja dek^hte hẽ/

‘They see the bird.’

Past Tense

Past tense refers to an event which happened before the time of utterance. Accordingly, the past tense in Dehati is formed person wise in following ways.

Person	Singular	plural
First	gəua t ^h a	gəue rahan

	‘Go-past. Simp.1Sg’	‘Go-past. Simp.1pl’
Second	gəue rahɔ	gəue rahɔ
	‘Go-past. Simp.2Sg’	‘Go-past. Simp.2pl’
Third (M)	gəue rahɛ	gəue rahẽ
	‘Go-past. Simp.3MSg’	‘Go-past. Simp.3pl’
Third (F)	gəui rahɛ	
	‘Go-past. Simp.3FSg’	

As it is evident from the above table Past Tense in Dehati is marked on verb root. It shows agreement with subject according to their number gender and person.

As in the following examples;

/mẽ baʃar gaua t^ha/

‘I went to the market.’

/ham baʃar gəj rahan/

‘We went to the market.’

/tum baʃar gəj rahɔ/

‘You (sg) went to the market.’

/aplog baʃar gəj rahɔ/

‘You(pl) went to the market.’

/ve baʃar gəj rahẽ/

‘He went to the market.’

/vah baʃar gaui rahɛ/

‘She went to the market.’

/ve baʃar ɡəj rahẽ/

‘They went to the market.’

Future Tense

Future tense refers to an event which will take place after the time of utterance. Accordingly, the person wise future tense is formed in the following ways.

Person	Singular	plural
First	dek ^h -ũga	dek ^h -ẽge
	‘See-Fut. Simp.1S’	‘See-Fut. Simp.1pl’
Second	dek ^h -oge	dek ^h -oge
	‘See-Fut. Simp.2S’	‘See-Fut. Simp.2pl’
Third (M)	dek ^h -ẽge	dek ^h -ẽge
	‘See-Fut. Simp.3MS’	‘See-Fut. Simp.3pl’
Third (F)	dek ^h -egi	
	‘See-Fut. Simp.3FS’	

As in following sentences;

Examples;

/mẽ cıraja dek^hũga/

‘I will see the bird.’

/ham cıraja dek^hẽge/

‘We will see the bird.’

/tõm cıraja dek^hoge/

‘You(sg) will see the bird.’

/aplog cɪrajako dek^hoge/

‘You(pl) will see the bird.’

/ve cɪrajə dek^hẽge/

‘He will see the bird.’

/vah cɪrajə dek^hegi/

‘She will see the bird.’

/ve sab log cɪrajə dek^hẽge/

‘They will see the bird.’

Aspect

Aspect is a grammatical category associated with verbs that expresses a temporal view of the event or state expressed by the verb. Aspectual information implies is related with duration, perfection, habituality etc. Dehati has three aspects interpreted in different tenses as follows;

- Habitual Aspect
- Progressive Aspect
- Perfective Aspect

Habitual Aspect

The Habitual Aspect denotes the action of the verb takes place from time to time. Marking for habitual aspect of two tenses of Dehati are as follows.

In Present Tense- In present tense, finite verb end with an inflection (according to the number, gender and person).

Examples;

/sɔraj purab dɪʒa mẽ ɔgat hɛ/

‘The sun rises in the east.’

/ham cɪrajə dek^hte hẽ/

‘We see the bird.’

/ap cɪrajadek^hte hẽ/

‘you (pl) see the bird.’

In Past Tense- In past tense, habitual aspect is observed as in the following examples.

Examples;

/mẽ nɔ baʃe ap^hɪs ʃaua karta t^ha/

‘I used to go to office at 9 o’clock.’

/tYm nɔ baʃe ap^hɪs ʃaua karte t^he/

‘You(sg) used to go to office at 9 o’clock.’

/vah nɔ baʃe dap^htar ʃaua karti t^hi/

‘She used to go to office at 9 o’clock,’

Progressive or Imperfective Aspect

In progressive aspect the action of the verb continues. In Dehati verb root changes into progressive forms. Progressive aspect in all the three tenses is marked as follows.

Present Tense- In present tense, the verb form for Progressive or Imperfective Aspect are a verb root + /progressive marker/ + aux as in the following examples.

Examples;

/ham cɪrajə dek^h rahe han/

‘We are seeing the bird.’

/tYm cɪrajə dek^h rahe ho/

‘You (sg) are seeing the bird.’

/vah baʃar ʃae rahi hẽ/

‘She is going to the market.’

/ve log baʃar ʃae rahe hẽ/

‘They are going to the market.’

Past Tense- In past tense, the verb form for Progressive or Imperfective Aspect are a verb root + /progressive marker/ + aux as in the following examples;

Examples;

/ham baʃar ʃae rahe t^he/

‘We were going to the market.’

/tYm baʃar ʃae rahe t^he/

‘You (sg) were going to the market.’

/vah baʃar ʃae rahi t^hi/

‘She was going to the market.’

/ve sab log baʃar ʃae rahe t^he/

‘They were going to the market.’

Future Tense- In Future Tense, the verb form for Progressive or Imperfective Aspect are a verb root + /progressive marker/ + aux as in the following examples;

Examples;

/ham cãd dek^h rahe hõge/

‘I will be seeing the moon.’

/tYm candrmã dek^h rahe hõge/

‘You(sg) will be seeing the moon.’

/mẽ baʃar ʃae raha hũga/

‘I will be going to the market.’

/vah candrmã dek^h rahi hogi/

‘She will be seeing the moon.’

Perfective Aspect

Perfective aspect is an aspect that expresses a temporal view of an event or state as a simple whole, apart from the consideration of the internal structure of the time in which it occurs. Perfective aspect in all the three tenses is marked as follows in Dehati.

Present Tense- In Present tense, the verb forms for Perfective Aspect are a verb root + /perfective marker/ + aux as in the following examples:

Examples;

/mẽ cırajako dek^h cuka hũ/

‘I have seen the bird.’

/uah cırajı dek^h cuka he/

‘It has seen the bird.’

/ap log cırajı dek^h cYke ho/

‘You(sg) have gone to the market.’

/ve sab cırajako dek^h cuke hẽ/

‘They have seen the bird.’

Past Tense- In Past Tense, the verb forms for Perfective Aspect are a verb root + perfective marker + aux as in the following examples;

Examples;

/mẽ baɟar gəja hua t^ha/

‘I had gone to the market.’

/ham baɟar gəj rahan/

‘We had gone to the market.’

/tum baʃar gəj houe tʰe/

‘You(pl) had gone to the market.’

/veh baʃar gəj huve rahẽ/

‘They had gone to the market.’

Future Tense- In Future Tense, the verb forms for Perfective Aspect are a verb root + perfective marker + aux as in following examples;

Examples;

/mẽ baʃar gaua huva hoga/

‘I shall have gone to the market’

/ham baʃar gəj huve hõge/

‘We will have gone to the market.’

/tum baʃar gəj huve hõge/

‘You (sg) will have gone to the market.’

/vah baʃar gaua houa hoga/

‘He will have gone to the market.’

/vah baʃar gɛ houi hogi/

‘She will have gone to the market.’

/veh baʃar gəj houe hõge/

‘They will have gone to the market.’

Mood

Mood is one of a set of distinctive forms that are used to signal modality. The mode or manner of a speaker is expressed by mood. It incorporates a statement, a command, a question, a doubt etc. Mood of Dehati may be categorized into several types as follows;

- **Indicative Mood-** Most verbs in this language used are in indicative mood, which indicates the action. Sentences in Dehati which exemplify *indicative mood* are;

Examples

/ʊ g^har ke andar hɛ/
‘He is in the house’

/gae dɔd^h daIt hɛ/
‘The cows give milk’

/mẽ g^har ʃaIt hẽ/
‘I go to the house’

- **Imperative Mood-** Verb in the imperative mood denotes command or request. This mood always occurs with second person. Though it is not present in the sentence but the sense must be there and it is always understood that it denotes the second person. Sentences in Dehati which exemplify *imperative mood* are;

Examples

/tu məhari bɪtʃja ko bulao/
‘Call your daughter.’

/g^har ka ʃavo/
‘Go home.’

/uah kItab paɽ^ho/
‘Read this book.’

- **Subjunctive Mood-** In the subjunctive mood, the sense is to suppose or desire an action. The subjunctive mood denotes desire or wish and one subordinate clause is required to complete the desire or wish of the subject of the main clause. Sentences in Dehati which exemplify *subjunctive mood* are;

Examples

/na vi na mẽ baʃar gaua t^ha/
‘Neither he nor I went to the market.’

/tum k^het par ʃavo ua p^hIr mē ʃata hũ/

‘Either you go or I shall to the field.’

- **Optative Mood-** The optative mood expresses a desire, wish, permission or request in a sentence. Sentences in Dehati which exemplify *subjunctive mood* are;

Examples

/tum mē se ko ʃao t^hora pani lao/

‘Let some of you go and fetch the cow.’

/Yn sab^hi ko ane do/

‘Let them all come.’

- **Compulsive Mood-** The compulsion on the part of the subject is expressed in compulsive mood. Sentences in Dehati which exemplify *compulsive mood* are;

Examples

/ʊka ua kItab lIk^hε ke cahi/

‘He should write a book.’

/koi b^hi hal mē tumka ave ke cahi/

‘Anyhow you must come.’

- **Conditional Mood-** When the completion of one verbal action is conditioned by another verb that particular manner of expression is called as Conditional modal category. In this mood two verbal actions are involved simultaneously. Sentences in Dehati which exemplify *conditional mood* are;

Examples

/agar vah mehənət kari tab sap^hal ho ʃal/

‘If he works hard he will succeed.’

/aḡar mē vahā rahIt to tumka sahara milat/

‘If I am there, you will have (some) support.’

Non-finite Verb

A non-finite verb or verbals are any of several verb forms which cannot serve as the root of an independent clause. In other words a non-finite may be described as ‘a verb derived words’ which has ability to serve as a noun or adjective. It may be categorized into following types.

- Infinitive
- Gerund
- Participle

Infinitive

An infinitive is an uninflected or plain form of the verb. In English it is indicated as ‘to + the verb’ as in ‘to go’ while in Dehati it is indicated by adding ‘-(v) e (ke)’ into the verb root. It acts as a noun in Dehati.

Examples;

/cīraja gana gave ke pasand karat hē/

‘Birds love to sing.’

/mē ne tYm ko ave ke kahe rahan/

‘I told you to come.’

/bahYt log ʃaldi pēsa banave cahat hē/

‘Manu men desire to make money quickly.’

Gerund

Gerunds are those forms of verbs that act like nouns. They can follow adjectives and other verbs. Since it is a kind of noun, it may be the subject or object to some verb. In English it is indicated as ‘the verb + -ing’ as in ‘going’ while in Dehati it is realized as follows;

Examples;

/pēreke sehat ke lue acc^{ha} hota hē/

‘Swimming is good for health.’

/vi kṛiket k^{he}le ke pasand karat hē/

‘He is fond of playing cricket.’

Participles

A participle is a word that shares some characteristics of both verbs and adjectives. It is also called verbal adjective. A participle is a word formed from a verb that can function as part of a verb phrase. In English when gerund functions as an adjective it is also known as participle. In Dehati it may be realized as;

/c ^h apai/	‘printed’
/gIre huve/	‘fallen’

As in following examples

/c^hapai huji kɪtabē paɾ^hɛ mē asan hoti hē/
‘Printed books are easy to read.’

/vi gIre hōve p^halan ka ekatt^ha ke huji t^hi/
‘She collected the fallen fruits.’

Passivisation

Passivisation or passivisation is a term coined by Noam Chomsky. It is basically the transformation of a sentence from an active form to a passive form. Through the process of passivisation, the direct object of an active declarative sentence can become the subject of a passive sentence.

Passivisation allows you to leave out the Actor in Material processes, Experiencer in Mental processes, and Sauer (speaker) in Verbal process clauses:" Sometimes this enables newspapers, for instance, to protect sources by omitting the Sauer, or to retail their own opinions as though they were someone else’s.

The realization of passive sentences in Dehati may be observed as in the following sentences;

Examples

/mere doara pɛse lue gəj hē/
‘The money has been taken by me’

/tohar koɽ suava ʃae raha hɛ/
‘Your coat is being stitched.’

/usee kɪtab pea ʃa raha t^ha/
‘The book was being read by him’

/roʈi hamre doara k^hai ʃa raha hɛ/
'Bread is being eaten by me'

4. SYNTAX

Types of Sentences

A sentence is a grammatical unit that is composed of one or more clauses. The sentences in Dehati can be classified into

- i. Simple Sentence
- ii. Complex Sentence
- iii. Compound Sentence

The examples are given below according to the data –

5.2. i. Simple Sentence

The simple sentence consists of a subject and a predicate. It is a sentence structure that contains one independent clause and no dependent clauses.

Examples –

- | | |
|--------------------------------------|---------------------|
| /ʊ lərkek ɖək ^h ət hɛ/ | ‘He sees the child’ |
| /həm cirəija ɖək ^h it hɛ/ | ‘I see the bird’. |
| /həm roʃi k ^h əit hɛ/ | ‘I eat bread’ |

The predicate may be a finite intransitive or transitive verb. The most common simple sentence, however, consists of a nominative subject and a finite verb as predicate.

For example:

- | | |
|-------------------|---------------|
| /həm hja ajət hɛ/ | ‘I come here’ |
|-------------------|---------------|

5.2. ii. Compound Sentence

A compound sentence is a sentence composed of two or more coordinate clauses. In Dehati, the connectives used are / ɔr / for ‘and’.

Examples –

and - /ɖinma kam kəro ratik sovo/ ‘Work in the day and sleep at night’

and - /kuc^h məc^hr bəɖi hɛ ɔr kuc^h c^hoʃi/
‘Some fish are big and some are small’

and - /id^hər jak biləija ɔr ek kutva hɛ/ ‘Here is a cat and a dog’

5.2. iii. Complex Sentence

A sentence having one principal clause followed by one or more subordinate clause (s) is known as a complex sentence. The independent clause can stand alone.

Examples

/əgər pulis aihī to cər pəkɾe ʃəihin/	‘If the police comes then the thief will be caught’
/əgər tum ɖəvai ləho to bimari ʈʰik hoi ʃi/	‘If you take the medicine (then) the disease will be cured’

Similarly,

/əgər ɡʰoɖən kəne pəkʰna hoti to uʈ ʃate/ ‘If horses had wings they would have flown’

Sentences in Dehati can further be sub-classified into-

- i. Statement Sentence
- ii. Interrogative Sentence
- iii. Imperative Sentence
- iv. Purposive Sentence
- v. Potential Sentence
- vi. Conditional Sentence
- vii. Negative Sentence
- viii. Causative Sentence
- ix. Passive Sentence

i) Statement Sentence – The sentence which affirms a statement- Examples in Dehati include-

Example

/həm ciɾəija ɖəkʰit hɛ/ ‘I see the bird’

ii) Interrogative Sentence - The sentence which indicates a question like –

Example

/tum kja kʰat ho/ ‘What do you eat ?’

iii) Imperative Sentence - The sentence which implies a request, a command, an advice etc

Example

/tum beʈiko bulavo/	‘Call your daughter’
/bəiʈʰ ʃao/	‘(you) Sit down’.

iv) Purposive Sentence – The sentence which expresses a purpose like

Example –

/ʋu g^hɔda bɛca ʃai/ ‘That horse is to be sold’

v) Potential Sentence – When the potentiality is expressed in a sentence, it thus called.

Example –

/həm ai səkit hɛ/ ‘I may come’

vi) Conditional sentence – When two actions are conditioned by each other in a single sentence.

Example

/əgər g^hɔdan kəne pək^hna hoti to uɾ ʃate/ ‘If horses had wings they would have flown’

vii) Passive sentence - The sentence where the main action is expressed in passive is called passive sentence. In Dehati, the passive formation is absent like other Indo-Aryan languages and the active verb plays the role.

Example –

/sərkarse gəribənka rupija ɖin gəva rəhe/ ‘Money was given by the Govt. to the poor’
/həmre ɖvara pəisa lin gəje hɛ/ ‘The money has been taken by me’

viii) Causative Sentence – The causative sentences are formed by suffixing causative marker to the verb which varies according to the person. When the subject causes some agent to do the action we get causative sentence.

Example –

/həm nəkərse k^hetmə kam kərait hɛ/ ‘I make the servant work in the field’
/həm g^hɔrek ɖəurait hɛ/ ‘I am making thhorserun’
/həm nərsse lərkek k^hilvait hɛ/ ‘I make the nurse feed the baby’

ix) Negative sentence – The sentence which expresses the negation are called so.

Example –

/ʋo ʃũ kam nəi kər səkət hɛ/ ‘They cannot do it’
/həmre pas kuc^h nəhi hɛ/ ‘I have nothing with me’
/vəh kam nəhi kis hɛ/ ‘She has not done the work’

5.3. Structure of Phrases

A phrase is a syntactic structure that consists of more than one word but lacks the subject-predicate organization of a clause. The phrasal sub-division in Dehati is as follows-

5.3. i. Noun Phrase

A noun phrase or nominal phrase, (NP) combines with other words in a noun phrase, optionally accompanied by modifiers like adjectives and intensifiers.

Examples –

/bəɖi ɖəvəi/	‘Big baskets’
/bəɖe virva/	‘The large trees’
/ufəl ɡʰɔɖe/	‘The white horse’

5.3. ii. Verb Phrase

A verb phrase (VP) is a phrase that has the syntactic role of a simple verb, and is composed of a main verb and auxiliary verbs or verbal particles related syntactically to the verb. In generative grammar, a verb phrase is a syntactic unit that corresponds to the predicate. In addition to the verb, this includes auxiliaries, objects, object complements, and other constituents apart from the subject. These are inflected for person, number and gender. The predicate may be a finite intransitive or transitive verb. Examples –

/ram teɟ dəurət hɛ/	‘Rama runs quickly’
/həm səb pani ɐbalit hɛ/	‘We boil water’
/həm ɡʰɔɖa dəurait hɛ/	‘We run the horse’

5.3.iii. Postpositional Phrases

A postposition is an ad position that occurs after its complement. An ad positional phrase is a syntactic category that includes prepositional phrases (PP) and postpositional phrases (PSP). Here the postposition is in the head position and usually a complement such as a noun phrase follows it.

Examples

/ɡʰɔɖanse ɖɔɖek hot hɛ/	‘Running is done by the horse’
/kitab meɟək kʰale hɛ/	‘The book is below the table’
/cirəija moɖek upərse uɾ ɡəje/	‘The bird flew over the head’

5.3. iv. Adjectival Phrase

In an adjectival phrase, the adjective acts as the head of the phrase. An adjectival phrase consists of an adjective followed by a noun, intensifiers or adverbs followed by adjective and noun, thereby making the structure more complex.

Examples

/nik ləḍkja/	‘The good child’
/bəḍe vɪrva/	‘The large trees’
/ja nik kəhani/	‘This good story’

5.3.v. Adverbial Phrase

An adverb is a lexical category whose members have the same syntactic distribution and which modifies adjectives, other adverbs, verbs, or whole clauses or sentences. An adverb phrase has an adverb that complements the verb.

Examples

/ʃorse nə bolo/	‘Do not speak loudly’
/d ^h ires bat kəro/	‘Speak slowly’

5.4. Passivisation

Passivisation indicates that the subject is the patient or recipient of the action denoted by the verb. In Dehati, the passive formation is absent like other Indo-Aryan languages and the active verb plays the role.

Examples –

/həmre ḍvara pəisa lin gəje hɛ/	‘The money has been taken by me’
/use kitab pəḍava ʃat rəhe/	‘The book was being read by him’
/roṭi həmre ḍvara k ^h ava ʃat hɛ/	‘Bread is being eaten by me’

5.5. Negation

Negation is a morphosyntactic operation in which a lexical item denies or inverts the meaning of another lexical item or construction. This may be done by introducing a new nugatory (a lexical item which expresses negation) or by the process of inverting the meaning of pre-existing lexical item. Examples of nugatory in Dehati are as follows;

- /na/
- /nahĩ/
- /məṭ/
- /asamb^hav/

Sentences that exemplify negation in Dehati are as follows;

/vah kam nahi kɪua hɛ/
'He did not do the work.'
/tumka hɪua na rahe ke cahi/
'You (sg) must not remain here.'
/agi ke pas mat ʃao/
'Do not go near the fire.'
/jah asamb^hav hɛ /
'It is impossible.'

Here in above examples first and second sentence exemplify the introduction of most frequently occurring negatory that is 'nahi' or 'na' while, third sentence exemplify use of less occurring negatory /mət/. In fourth sentence we may see negation by inverting meaning of pre-existing lexical item.

5.6. Causativisation

The causative sentences are formed by suffixing causative marker to the verb which varies according to the person. Causative indicates that a subject causes someone or something else to do or be something.

Examples

/həm nɔrsse lərkek k ^h ilvait hɛ/	'I make the nurse feed the baby'
/həm nəkərse k ^h etmə kam kərait hɛ/	'I make the servant work in the field'
/həm logənka həsait hɛ/	'I make the people laugh'
/həm q ^h orek d̪əurait hɛ/	'I am making the horse run'

5. TEXT

Two friends and a Bear

/do: dost o:r ik ba:lu:/

One day they promised each other that

/e:k din vo: ik du:sire: se: va:da: kahẽ ke:/

that they would remain united in case of any danger

/vo: kisi: bi: k^hatre:: mɛ sa:t rahe: vi: dil/

they were walking through a forest

/ve: do:nu: ʃaŋgal se: ʃa:t rahe:/

A bear came in front

/sa:m ne se: e:k ba:lu: a:ja:/

by seeing the bear in front them both the friend afraid

/ba:lu: ko: de:k kar e:s dost bohat ɖar gəje:/

Ramu climbed a tree

/ra:mu: rava: par caɖ gəja:/

Sham did not know how to climb a tree

/ʃa:m ko: rava: pe: caɖna: n^hi: a:ʃat/

He told to Ramu, "I do not know how to climb a tree, please help me

/ra:mu: se: bo:lis pe:ɖ par caɖat n^hi: a:ʃat ke: hama:ri: madat karo:/

But Ramu did not respond

/par ra:mu: ʃa:va:b ko:ʃi: na: dihis/

/ma:ju:s ho:ke: ʃa:m ape: sā:s ro:k ke: pohol gəja:/

In grief, Sham lay down on the ground breathless

/puhi: vaha: ba:lu: a:j gava:/

The bear came their

/u: puve: ʃa:m ko: de:k ke: te: pa:s gəja: usko: sū:ŋge: laga:/

he saw sham he went near him and smelt

/su:ŋge: ke: ba:d vo: ʃa:m ko: vəhi: c^ho:ɖ ke: cala: gəja:/

after smelt he left sham their

/rave: par caḍe: ra:mu: ake: kuc^h kah gava: vo: us rava: se: utra:/

ramu on the tree thought that bear said something in the ear of sham, he came down from that tree

/ʃa:mu: se: pu:chⁱf/

he asked sham

/ki dost vo: ba:lu: ka:n mɛ kʲa: kahis/

friend what the bear tell you into your ears

/ʃa:m ʃami:n se: uʈ^his ra:mu: se: kahis/

Sham stand up from the ground and said to ramu

/ba:lu: miʃ se: bo:lis/

bear said to me

that “not to trust on liar and selfish who leaves you in times of trouble

/ki: ʃu:ʈ^he: o:r sua:rθi: pe: viʃva:s mat karna: ʃo: tumko: duk^h mɛ musibat mɛ ake:la: c^ho:ʈ ke: cala: ʃa:je:/

/itna: keh ke: ʃa:m vaha: se: ake:le: caldihis/

Saying this, Sham walked alone from their

1. INTRODUCTION

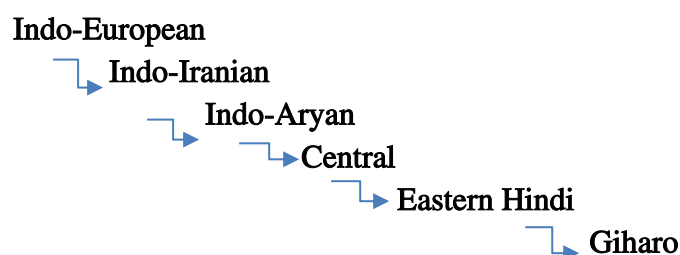
‘Giharo’ is a mother tongue, returned by a number of people who inhabit mainly in Uttar Pradesh. ‘Sitapur’ is the main district of Uttar Pradesh from where Giharo mother tongue has got its maximum return in Census 2001. The mother tongue has got its name from the community called ‘Gihar’. ‘Gihar’ is a Hindu caste found in various states of India. They are believed to be migrants or partially settled communities. They are now included in the Scheduled Tribes in Uttar Pradesh.

It is believed that Gihars are immigrants from Rajasthan. Most of the Gihars are strictly endogamous and are divided into four exogamous clans. These are Sodha, Shakta, Mahisha, Otavar, Gohar, Sor, Marmayan and Bhotiyarkhan. Many Gihars are still involved in their traditional occupations of rope making, bamboo basket making etc. Even now people are engaged themselves in cottage industries (small scale industries).

The language that they use to communicate among themselves is known as ‘Giharo’. Though it has got its unique name from the name of the community, it gets largely influenced by the predominant languages of the regions wherever the clan had been settled for ages. The data for the present survey has been collected from Sitapur district, since the population of ‘Giharo’ speakers was majorly found in Sitapur according to 2001 Census. This is the region where Awadhi, one of the predominant mother tongues grouped under Hindi, is been widely spoken. Giharo is one of the small variants of Hindi language spoken commonly in this area, along with few other such variants that are related to ‘Awadhi’ Mother Tongue (grouped under ‘Hindi’ language in Census). This study aims towards a detailed description of these smaller groups and provide a proper linguistic description of ‘Giharo’.

1.1 Family Affiliation

‘Giharo’ is a mother tongue which has been grouped under Hindi. It is more closely related to the Hindi spoken in Uttar Pradesh and adjoining areas. The family affiliation of Giharo mother tongue (under Hindi) can be shown like this



1.2 Location

For the present study, the data on ‘Giharo’ have been collected from Sitapur district of Uttar Pradesh since the population of ‘Giharo’ speakers was majorly found in Sitapur according to 2001 Census. Sitapur was first constituted as a district by the British after they took over the Oudh state in February, 1856. The boundaries of Sitapur touch Kheri district in the north, Hardoi district in the west and the Barabanki district makes its southern boundary.

Keeping the geographical surrounding in mind it can be said that the district lies in the cultural region of ‘Awadh’. Therefore, all the smaller variants of this regions have been tentatively classified to ‘Awadhi’ and the mother tongue here under survey has to be studied in the light of all other prominent dialects of that region due to whose influence it varies from other Giharo variants of different states.

1.3 Socio-linguistic Information

‘Giharo’ exists as a dialect spoken colloquially by the ‘Gihars’ of the Awadhi region of Uttar Pradesh. It is the vernacular of the region. Keeping this socio-linguistic fact as the background, the over all assessment of socio-linguistic implication of ‘Giharo’ in Uttar Pradesh state is presented in the form of following details based on the survey conducted in Uttar Pradesh in December, 2021 under ‘LSI-Uttar Pradesh’ project.

Language use in different domains-

a) Home - Giharo is predominantly used in home domain. Speakers use it to communicate with their family members including kith and kin both inside and outside of their home. However, when goes out of their native villages/towns, they use Hindi.

b) School - Giharo people prefer Hindi language as medium of instruction in school. Along with Hindi medium schools the schools with English as medium of instruction is also preferred by Giharo population.

c) Mass Media - As per the collected information in some cultural programmes covering songs, recitation or talks on socio-economic issues are telecast on television in local dialect. Recently, some books, magazines are also being published in Giharo.

d) Administration & Judiciary - In Administration and Judiciary only Hindi is found to be used.

e) Script – ‘Giharo’ is written in ‘Devnagari’ script which is an intricate writing system that has been used for centuries to write several Indian languages including Hindi. The script consists of 47 primary characters including 14 vowels and 33 consonants. Additional sounds are indicated by using diacritic marks above or under the sound. The script is read from left to right and words are separated by a vertical line called the ‘Danda’.

1.4 Review of Earlier Works

Giharo does not have any age old literary tradition. The regional varieties of Giharo exist mainly as a speech variety of native people and does not have any considerable amount of written literary heritage. The elder generations of this community generally used some oral fables, moral and historical stories to pass on their history and culture to their younger generations. However, recently the ‘Gihar’ community is trying to unite themselves throughout India and they are working very seriously to promote their ethnic identity as well as publicize their history to the entire country. They have formed various groups which are working dedicatedly for this purpose. Recently, some books, periodical magazines on ‘Giharo’ community are being published in Giharo as well as in standard Hindi in order to reach a larger group of readers.

1.5 The Present Study: Base for Analysis

The present study is a humble attempt to give the detailed phonological, morphological and syntactic features of ‘Giharo’ based on the field data collected from Sitapur district of Uttar Pradesh in December, 2021 under the ‘LSI, Uttar Pradesh’ project. The names of the informant and interpreter are – Shri. Mayank Pandey and Smt. Asmita Mishra respectively.

Previously, ‘Giharo’ had been surveyed under ‘Mother Tongue Survey of India’ (MTSI) Project of the Ministry of Home Affairs, Govt. of India in 2013 from Sitapur, Uttar Pradesh. Four different samples (variables) which are categorized on the basis of informant’s place, gender and age, have been collected in audio-visual form. The names of the informants are- Shri. Khushiram Gihar, Shri. Lalluram Gihar, Smt. Nilima Gihar and Smt. Kanti Devi. The persons who worked as the interpreters are – Shri. Jagdev Prasad Gihar, Shri. Indraprakash Gihar, Smt. Shalini Gihar and Shri. Amit Gihar.

Those data were given to different scholars from various universities of India to write an analytical report on each of the particular variable. The details of the scholars are as follows: Neelofar Wani and Parvez Ahmed, University of Kashmir. Finally, these analytical reports had been given to an eminent professor who had amalgamated all these sketchy reports into an exhaustive consolidation. The consolidated report of ‘Giharo’ was written by our inhouse Research Officer Dr. N. Gopalakrishnan.

Moreover, a fresh survey has also been conducted in 2021 by our inhouse linguists in order to supplement the MTSI survey results for preparing the ‘Linguistic Survey of India, Uttar Pradesh’ volume. The present report on ‘Giharo’ for LSI, Uttar Pradesh volume has been prepared largely on the base of Dr. N. Gopalakrishnan’s consolidated report along with the findings derived from the fresh survey results.

2. PHONOLOGY

Phonology studies the sound systems of languages including the ways in which the sounds are organized and used in natural languages. It is concerned with the systematic organization of the speech sounds, known as ‘phonemes’ and involves the analysis of the phonetic and phonemic properties of the speech sounds as well the rules that govern their distribution and variation in different languages. Overall, it is a fundamental component of linguistic analysis that provides insight into the underlying structures and processes that shapes a language. On the basis of the collected data the phonological structure of Giharo mother tongue has been given below.

2.1. Phonemic Inventory

Phonemic inventory refers to the set of sounds or phonemes that are organized and used to convey meaning in a particular language. The phonemic inventory of Giharo comprises of both segmental and supra-segmental phonemes.

2.1.1. Segmental Phonemes

(A) Vowels

A vowel is a speech sound, during the articulation of which, the lung-air escapes through the mouth without any friction or obstruction. The vowels are produced with the mouth and throat relatively open and unconstructed allowing the air to flow freely. There are **18** distinct vowel sounds in Giharo comprising of **9** pure vowels and **9** diphthongs.

(i) Pure Vowels or Monophthongs

A pure vowel, also known as monophthongs, is a vowel sound that is pronounced with a consistent and unchanging tongue position throughout its duration. Giharo has **9** pure vowel sounds out of which **4** are front, **1** is central and **4** are back. Most of the vowel sounds have their nasalized counterparts.

VOWEL CHART

	Front	Central	Back
Close	i ɪ		u ʊ
Close-mid	e		o
Mid		ə	
Open-mid	ɛ		
Open			ɑ

Distribution of Vowel Sounds

Vowel	Initial		Medial		Final	
/i/	---	---	/bəgɪca/	‘garden’	/nədi/	‘river’
			/nɪla/	‘blue’	/cəɾbi/	‘fat’
			/pɪtəɾ/	‘brass’	/āk ^{hi} /	‘eye’
/ɪ/	/ɪlaɟ/	‘treatment’	/sɪsɔ̃/	‘child’	/pəɾɪ/	‘husband’
	/ɪhā/	‘here’	/pɪta/	‘father’	/ɾaɾɪ/	‘night’
	/ɪnək/	‘these’	/bɪstəɾ/	‘bed’	/lɛhɛɾɪ/	‘wave’
/e/	/ek/	‘one’	/derɪ/	‘late’	/aɟe/	‘fire’
	/eɾɪ/	‘heel’	/peɾ/	‘tree’	/nɪce/	‘down’
	/epɛŋga/	‘staircase’	/kelə/	‘banana’	/vɛ/	‘they’
/ɛ/	---	---	/nɛja/	‘new’	/c ^h ɛ/	‘six’
			/ɟɛnɪ/	‘wise’		
			/tɛɾbo/	‘to swim’		
/ə/	/ənd ^h o/	‘blind’	/əɟəɾ/	‘if’	/məɾmə/	‘heart’
	/əndɭa/	‘egg’	/ləta/	‘creeper’	/solə/	‘sixteen’
	/əntɪm/	‘end’	/səɾ/	‘head’	/c ^h atrə/	‘student’
/a/	/ama/	‘mother’	/ləkaɾɪ/	‘wood’	/vərsa/	‘rain’
	/akas/	‘sky’	/talab/	‘pond’	/tara/	‘star’
	/alu/	‘potato’	/nak/	‘nose’	/duliha/	‘axe’
/u/	/upəɾɪ/	‘over’	/purəb/	‘east’	/badaru/	‘cloud’
	/uk ^h əli/	‘mortar’	/duraɱaɾ/	‘vice’	/seru/	‘lion’
			/purano/	‘old’	/dātu/	‘tooth’
/ɔ/	/ɔnnɪs/	‘nineteen’	/gɔɾ/	‘sweet’	/ɾɪtɔ̃/	‘season’
	/ɔlu/	‘owl’	/pɔ̃ɾɔ̃s/	‘male’	/d ^h atɔ̃/	‘metal’
	/ɔltɪ/	‘vomit’	/mɔ̃ɾɟɪ/	‘hen’	/setɔ̃/	‘bridge’
/o/	/osɔ̃/	‘dew’	/dost/	‘friend’	/cətɔ̃ɾo/	‘clever’
	/oɟ ^h a/	‘sorcer’	/bəhot/	‘many’	/ləmbo/	‘tall’
			/loho/	‘iron’	/sono/	‘gold’

Vowel Glides or Diphthongs

A diphthong may be described as a *vowel glide*, i.e. the tongue first takes the position required for the articulation of a certain vowel and then moves (or glides) towards the position required for the articulation of another vowel. A vowel Glide, if it has to be called a diphthong, will have to occupy a single syllable. Giharo has 9 Diphthongs or Vowel glides. These are - /ɪɑ/, /aɪ/, /aɔ/, /əɪ/, /əɔ/, /uɪ/, /ɔɑ/ and /oɔ/.

Distribution of vowel glides or Diphthongs

Diphthong	Initial		Medial		Final	
/ɪɑ/	---	---	---	---	/təkɪɑ/	‘pillow’
					/bɔɪ ^h ɪɑ/	‘old woman’
/aɪ/	---	---	/banaɪbo/	‘to make’	/nəsai/	‘vein’
			/nahaɪbo/	‘to bathe’	/gai/	‘cow’
/ai/	---	---	/mɔlai ^h ɑ/	‘turban’	/nai/	‘barber’
			/haiɟɑ/	‘cholera’	/ləɾai/	‘fight’
/aɔ/	---	---	/kaɔn/	‘who’	---	---
			/laɔki/	‘white gourd’		
/əɪ/	---	---	/məika/	‘mother’s father’s	/tɔɾəɪ/	‘trumpet’
			/bɔɪ ^h əika/	home’ ‘seat’	/taɾəɪ/	‘comet’
/əɔ/	/əɔɾəɪ/	‘woman’	/cəɔɾo/	‘wide’	---	---
	/əɔɾ/	‘and’	/dəɔɾ/	‘race’		
/uɪ/	---	---	/c ^h uibo/	‘to touch’	/sui/	‘needle’
					/rui/	‘cotton’
/ɔɑ/	---	---	/sɔɑɾɟ/	‘pig’	/bɔɑ/	‘father’s sister’
					/təɾɟɔɑ/	‘balance/scale’
/oɔ/			/moɔsi/	‘mother’s sister’	/noɔ/	‘nine’
			/moɔsa/	‘mother’s sister’s husband’		

(B) Consonants

A consonant is a speech sound that is produced by obstructing or constructing the lung-air in the vocal tract, creating friction. This is the point that distinguishes consonants from the vowels which are produced without obstruction or constriction of airflow. Giharo has 32 consonants including 2 approximant.

CONSONANT CHART

		Bilabial		Labio-dental		Dental		Alveolar		Palato-alveolar		Palatal		Retroflex		Velar		Glottal	
		vl	vd	vl	vd	vl	vd	vl	vd	vl	vd	vl	vd	vl	vd	vl	vd	vl	vd
Stop	Unaspirated	p	b			t	d			c	ɟ			ʈ	ɖ	k	g		
	Aspirated	p ^h	b ^h			t ^h	d ^h			c ^h	ɟ ^h			ʈ ^h	ɖ ^h	k ^h	g ^h		
Nasal			m						n								ŋ		
Fricative				f				s										h	
Tap or Flap	Unaspirated							r						ɽ					
	Aspirated													ɽ ^h					
Lateral								l											
Approximants					ʋ							j							

Distribution of Consonants

Consonant	Initial		Medial		Final	
/p/	/pani/	‘water’	/capaɽi/	‘bread’	/tap/	‘heat’
	/puɟa/	‘worship’	/kəpɽə/	‘cloth’	/sap/	‘snake’
	/pəkəɽibo/	‘to hold’	/rupəia/	‘money’	/b ^h ap/	‘steam’
/p ^h /	/p ^h əl/	‘fruit’	/munp ^h ali/	‘ground nut’	/kəp ^h /	‘phlegm’
	/p ^h ul/	‘flower’	/p ^h ep ^h ro/	‘lung’	/səũp ^h /	‘aniseed’
	/p ^h al/	‘plogh’	/ənarp ^h əl/	‘pomegranate’		
/b/	/bəndər/	‘baboon’	/silbətɽa/	‘grinding stone’	/ɟeb/	‘pocket’
	/baɟ/	‘hawk’	/əstəbəl/	‘stable’	/kəb/	‘when’
	/biɟ/	‘seed’	/sərbət/	‘broth’	/kɪtab/	‘book’
/b ^h /	/b ^h əɽɟi/	‘brother’s wife’	/sab ^h ə/	‘all’	/nəb ^h /	‘naval’
			/cəb ^h na/	‘to prick’		
	/b ^h umi/	‘earth’	/kəsəb ^h i/	‘somehow’		
	/b ^h əura/	‘whirlpool’				

/t/	/tendʊa/	‘panther’	/tota/	‘parrot’	/kəpot/	‘pigeon’
	/teʃ/	‘sharp’	/cita/	‘leopard’	/k ^h et/	‘barn’
	/tarəi/	‘comet’	/pətri/	‘pupil of eye’	/səŋket/	‘signal’
/t ^h /	/t ^h ən/	‘udder’	/nət ^h ʊna/	‘nostril’	/rət ^h /	‘chariot’
	/t ^h əra/	‘bag’	/pat ^h aru/	‘stone’	/ənət ^h /	‘orphan’
	/t ^h əkina/	‘to tired’	/mat ^h a/	‘forehead’	/hat ^h /	‘hand’
/d/	/dimək/	‘white ant’	/məʃdur/	‘labourer’	/amarud/	‘guava’
	/diva/	‘wall’	/cādi/	‘silver’	/səvad/	‘taste’
	/dusra/	‘second’	/kūdiɓo/	‘to jump’	/cād/	‘moon’
/d ^h /	/d ^h an/	‘paddy’	/ad ^h irat/	‘midnight’	/dud ^h /	‘milk’
	/d ^h oti/	‘dhoti’	/bid ^h ʊr/	‘widower’	/jʊd ^h /	‘war’
	/d ^h əsna/	‘swamp’	/sid ^h o/	‘straight’	/krod ^h /	‘anger’
/c/	/cĩvʉi/	‘ant’	/k ^h ĩciɓo/	‘to pull’	/səc/	‘true’
	/cori/	‘theft’	/nacibo/	‘to dance’	/pāc/	‘five’
	/cuna/	‘lime’	/mĩrca/	‘earthworm’	/kāc/	‘glass’
/c ^h /	/c ^h uɾau/	‘divorce’	/məc ^h əri/	‘fish’	/kɔc ^h /	‘few’
	/c ^h ε/	‘six’	/kəc ^h ʊo/	‘tortoise’	/pūc ^h /	‘tail’
	/c ^h oɟo/	‘small’	/pōc ^h ɪbo/	‘to wipe’	/mūc ^h /	‘moustache’
/ʃ/	/ʃɔɾɪva/	‘twin’	/surʃa/	‘sun’	/teʃ/	‘sharp’
	/ʃūə/	‘louse’	/b ^h eʃɪbo/	‘to send’	/roʃ/	‘daily’
	/ʃib/	‘tongue’	/kəmʃor/	‘weak’	/aʃ/	‘today’
/ʃ ^h /	/ʃ ^h ĩŋgɔra/	‘cricket (insect)’	/səmʃ ^h ɪbo/	‘to understand’	/sāʃ ^h /	‘evening’
			/səlʃ ^h ana/	‘to unravel’		
	/ʃ ^h ərɔa/	‘sling’	/oʃ ^h a/	‘socerer’		
/t/	/ʃ ^h imɔr/	‘cockroach’				
/t/	/təkla/	‘bald head’	/baɾaro/	‘son’	/k ^h at/	‘bed’
	/təokajbo/	‘to drip’	/peɾu/	‘stomach’	/g ^h at/	‘island’
	/təna/	‘witchcraft’	/naɾo/	‘short’	/ūɾ/	‘camel’
/t ^h /	/t ^h oɾi/	‘chin’	/kət ^h in/	‘hard’	/piɾ ^h /	‘back of body’
	/t ^h əndɾa/	‘coldness’	/ɔɾ ^h aɪbo/	‘to pick’	/ōɾ ^h /	‘lip’
	/t ^h okəɾ k ^h ajbo/	‘to stuble’	/bəiɾ ^h ɪbo/	‘to sit’	/at ^h /	‘eight’
/d/	/dəndɿ/	‘stick’	/əndɾa/	‘egg’	/dənd/	‘fine’

	/dʒəɪbo/	‘to fear’	/haɖi/	‘bone’	/sʊnd/	‘trunk of an elephant’
	/dʒubajbo/	‘to sink’	/hundʒəl/	‘pen’		
/dʰ/	/dʰəkəlbo/	‘to push’	/tʰəndʰa/	‘beam (of roof)’	---	---
	/dʰoɟbo/	‘to carry’	/kundʰi/	‘latch’		
	/dʰol/	‘drum’				
/k/	/kəɽbo/	‘to cut’	/kekɽa/	‘crab’	/nək/	‘nose’
	/kæcci/	‘raw’	/kəkəɽi/	‘cucumber’	/nəɾək/	‘hell’
	/ka/	‘what’	/bʰukiro/	‘hungry’	/ɪnək/	‘these’
/kʰ/	/kʰɪɾki/	‘window’	/akʰi/	‘eye’	/ɾakʰ/	‘ashes’
	/kʰəɽtʃo/	‘sour’	/makʰi/	‘fly’	/pəŋkʰ/	‘wing’
	/kʰel/	‘games’	/nakʰun/	‘nail’	/səŋkʰ/	‘couch’
/g/	/gɑɪ/	‘cow’	/pəgəɽpən/	‘insanity’	/səg/	‘spinach’
	/gond/	‘gum’	/kəgəɽ/	‘paper’	/ɾog/	‘disease’
	/gəɾəm/	‘hot’	/nəgəɾu/	‘city’	/ɕɪɾəg/	‘foam’
/gʰ/	/gʰõsla /	‘nest’	/ɾəsɔɪgʰəɾ/	‘worship’	/sɪŋgʰ/	‘horn’
	/gʰəɾ/	‘house’	/kəɾgʰə/	‘loom’		
	/gʰas/	‘grass’	/kəŋgʰi/	‘comb’		
/m/	/məkɽi/	‘spider’	/cəmgəɽəɾ/	‘small bat’	/godam/	‘store’
	/mẽ/	‘I’	/bimar/	‘sick’	/badam/	‘almond’
	/məsuɽa/	‘gum’	/kəmbəɽia/	‘blanket’	/kəsəm/	‘oath’
/n/	/nəɾɪəl/	‘coconut’	/nana/	‘mother’s father’	/tʰɪkən/	‘wrinkle’
	/nakʰoni/	‘claw’	/pune/	‘full moon’	/ɟan/	‘ajwain’
	/nila/	‘blue’	/pəsina/	‘sweat’	/tin/	‘three’
/ŋ/	---	---	/guŋgo/	‘dumb’	/hiŋ/	‘asafoetida’
			/ləŋgəɾ/	‘anchor’	/loŋ/	‘clove’
			/nəŋga/	‘naked’	/pətəŋ/	‘kite’
/f/	/fena/	‘foam’	/gofəɾ/	‘sling’	/bəɾəf/	‘ice’
	/fis/	‘fee’	/tufan/	‘cyclone’	/təɾəf/	‘towards’
	/fəsla/	‘judgement’	/kofɪ/	‘coffee’	/saf/	‘clean’
/s/	/səɾɪɾ/	‘body’	/dusməɳ/	‘enemy’	/mas/	‘flesh’
	/sat/	‘seven’	/ɾɪstedəɾ/	‘relatives’	/dəs/	‘ten’
	/socibo/	‘to think’	/bāsuri/	‘flute’	/bəɾəs/	‘year’

/h/	/həʋa/	‘air’	/nahəɾɪa/	‘wave’	/mũh/	‘face’
	/həlko/	‘light’	/kohɾa/	‘fog’	/ʋəh/	‘that’
	/həm/	‘we’	/ʃulaho/	‘weaver’	/ʋəʃah/	‘cause’
/ɾ/	/ɾəssi/	‘rope’	/sari/	‘sari’	/mor/	‘peacock’
	/ɾokɪbo/	‘to stop’	/bʰura/	‘brown’	/ser/	‘tiger’
	/ɾatɪ/	‘night’	/puro/	‘full’	/car/	‘four’
/ɽ/	---	---	/ləɽka/	‘boy’	/rãɽ/	‘widow’
			/səɽək/	‘road’	/ʃəɽ/	‘root’
			/gʰoɽa/	‘horse’	/kicəɽ/	‘mud’
/ɽʰ/	---	---	/cəɽʰɪbo/	‘to ascend’	/baɽʰ/	‘flood’
			/bəɽʰəi/	‘carpenter’	/maɽʰ/	‘rice foam’
			/daɽʰi/	‘wooden seat’	/ənpəɽʰ/	‘illiterate’
/ɭ/	/lon/	‘salt’	/pila/	‘yellow’	/lal/	‘red’
	/loməɽɪ/	‘fox’	/kolu/	‘oil crusher’	/kʰəɽɭməɭ/	‘bed-bug’
	/laɽbo/	‘to bring’	/culha/	‘oven’	/tɪɭ/	‘sesame seed’
/ʋ/	/ʋərsa/	‘rain’	/kəɽʋo/	‘bitter’	/naʋ/	‘boat’
	/ʋɪja/	‘marriage’	/səʋad/	‘taste’	/ləgəʋ/	‘attachment’
	/ʋo/	‘it’	/səʋero/	‘morning’	/gʰəʋ/	‘wound’
/j/	/judʰ/	‘war’	/ʃaɽpʰəɾ/	‘nutmeg’	/ʋɪdʒaləɽ/	‘school’
	/joʃna/	‘plan’	/dəɽa/	‘pity’	/bɪʃəɽ/	‘victory’
	/jatɾa/	‘journey’	/ʃaɽdat/	‘estate’	/səməɽ/	‘moment’

Note- In Giharo /f/ sound is found in the loan words from English and Persian (including the words that Persian itself borrowed from Arabic and Turkish). are represented by using these sounds. This sound officially exists in Hindi also and modified Devanagari character is available to represent it i.e. - ‘फ़’ /f/. The same pattern is also followed in Giharo also. A diacritic mark called Nuqta (.) is introduced in Devanagari script to represent the sounds that are not present in the original script. It takes the form of a dot placed below a character and the idea is inspired from the Arabic script. For example – फ़र्श /fəɽʃ/ ‘floor’.

Allophonic Variation of Giharo Consonants

Allophones are the contextual variants of the same phoneme which are pronounced in different ways, depending on its position in a word, its surrounding sounds and other phonological factors. These allophonic variations are often influenced by the factors such as the sounds that come before and after it and the speaker’s regional accent etc.

- In Giharo, retroflex /ɳ/ occurs as a phonologically conditioned allophone of alveolar /n/ where it is followed by the homorganic stop sounds. For example:

Giharo Word	Gloss	Phonemic Transcription	Phonetic Transcription (allophonic)
अंडा	‘egg’	/əndɑ/	[əɳdɑ]
ठंडा	‘cold’	/tʰəndɑ/	[tʰəɳdɑ]

Consonant Sequence

A consonant sequence refers to two or more consonant sounds that occur together without an intervening vowel sound. Consonant sequences are a very common feature in many languages and they can occur within a syllable as well as across syllable boundaries. Different languages have different rules governing which consonant can occur together in a sequence while others are rare and non-existent. There are generally two types of consonant sequences available in a language – (i) Homogeneous Consonant Sequence and (ii) Heterogeneous Consonant Sequence.

(i) Homogeneous Consonant Sequence

A Homogeneous consonant sequence refers to a sequence of two or more consonants (without an intervening vowel sound) that share the same place and manner of articulation. In other words, all the consonants in the sequence are produced by using the same part of the mouth cavity and in the same manner. Distribution of Homogeneous consonant sequences of Giharo are as follows:

Consonant Sequence	Initial		Medial		Final	
/mm/	---	---	/dəmma/	‘asthma’	---	---
			/mərəmmət	‘to repair’		
			kəɾibo/			
/tt/	---	---	/səttər/	‘seventy’	---	---
			/əttər/	‘north’		
/dd/	---	---	/gəddi/	‘mattress’	---	---
			/kəddu/	‘pumpkin’		
/nn/	---	---	/gənnɑ/	‘sugarcane’	---	---
			/pənnɑ/	‘emerald’		

/cc/	---	---	/sæcco/	‘honest’	---	---
			/kæcci/	‘raw’		
/tt/	---	---	/k ^h ətto/	‘sour’	---	---
			/pəttə/	‘collar’		
/dd/	---	---	/cəddi/	‘back tuck’	---	---
			/tiddi/	‘locust’		
/kk/	---	---	/cəkki/	‘grinder’	---	---
			/pəkko/	‘ripe’		
/ss/	---	---	/ræssi/	‘rope’	---	---
			/æssi/	‘eighty’		
/ll/	---	---	/cillajbo/	‘to shout’	---	---
			/illia/	‘caterpillar’		

(ii) Heterogeneous Consonant Sequence

A Heterogeneous Consonant Sequence refers to a sequence of two or more consonants (without an intervening vowel sound) that belong to different phonetic classes or articulatory manners. In other words, a heterogeneous consonant sequence is a sequence in which the consonants have different manners of articulation or point of articulation. Distribution of Heterogeneous consonant sequences of Giharo are as follows:

Consonant Sequence	Initial		Medial		Final	
/mp/	---	---	/kəmpibo/	‘to shiver’	/b ^h ukəmp/	‘earthquake’
			/cəmpa/	‘a kind of flower’		
/mb/	---	---	/kəmbəlia/	‘blanket’	---	---
			/cəmbaku/	‘magnet’		
/nt/	---	---	/əntim/	‘end’	---	---
			/əntis/	‘twenty nine’		
/nd/	---	---	/bəndəru/	‘monkey’	/gond/	‘gum’
			/gəndo/	‘dirty’		
/nd ^h /	---	---	/and ^h i/	‘storm’	---	---
			/ənd ^h o/	‘blind’		

/nd/	---	---	/səndʌs/ /hundʌl/	‘privy (toilet)’ ‘pen’	/dənd/ /gʰəmənd/	‘fine’ ‘pride’
/ndʰ/			/tʰəndʰa/ /kundʰi/	‘beam roof’ ‘latch’	of ---	---
/ŋk/	---	---	/səŋket/ /təŋkia/	‘signal’ ‘niche’	/dəŋk (maribo)/	‘to sting (as a bee)’
/ŋkʰ/	---	---	---	---	/pəŋkʰ/ /səŋkʰ/	‘wing’ ‘conch’
/ŋg/	---	---	/ʃəŋgəli/ /guŋgo/	‘wild’ ‘dumb’	/sat rəŋg/ /muŋg/	‘rainbow’ ‘green gram’
/ŋgʰ/	---	---	/gʰuŋgʰu/ /kəŋgʰi/	‘veil’ ‘comb’	/sɪŋgʰ/	‘horn’
/tɾ/	---	---	/patro/ /cʰatɾə/	‘thin’ ‘student’	---	---
/st/	---	---	/səsto/ /bɪstəɾ/	‘cheap’ ‘bed’	/dost/	‘friend’
/stʰ/	/stʰan/	‘place’ /stʰanantə rit kəribo/	‘to move an object’	/gəɾbʰabəstʰa/	‘pregnancy’	---

2.1.2. Phonemic Contrast

Phonemic contrast refers to the minimal phonemic difference between two almost identical words due to the difference of a distinctive sound or phoneme that serves to distinguish the words from each other. These phonemes are usually perceived as separate and distinct units of sound by the native speakers of a particular language and changing one phoneme for another can change the meaning of the words. These set of words that differ from each other by only one phoneme (or two phonemes in case of ‘Sub-Minimal Pairs’) are called ‘Minimal Pairs’ and they are used to demonstrate the phonemic contrast of a language, as they show how by changing one phoneme the meaning of a word can be changed. Minimal Pairs can be very useful to establish the phonemic inventory of a language as they help to identify the sounds that are phonemically contrastive in a language.

Phonemic Contrast in Vowels of Giharo

Vowels are the fundamental component of the sound system of any language and the phonemic contrast in vowels is very crucial for establishing the vowel phonemes of a particular language. Giharo has a rich vowel system with 9 vowels some of which can be short or long. Length of vowels is phonemic in Giharo which means that changing one vowel for another can change the meaning of the word.

Vowels in Contrast	Word	Gloss	Word	Gloss
/a/ ~ /i/	/baɣ/	‘hawk’	/biɣ/	‘seed’
/ə/ ~ /o/	/dəsti/	‘handkerchief’	/dosti/	‘friendship’
/e/ ~ /i/	/ɣeb/	‘pocket’	/ɣib/	‘tongue’
/e/ ~ /ɛ/	/bel/	‘bel (sriphal)’	/bɛl/	‘bull’
/ɪ/ ~ /i/	/cʰatɪ/	‘roof’	/cʰati/	‘chest’
/ʊ/ ~ /u/	/sʊkʰo/	‘happiness’	/sukʰo/	‘dry’

Phonemic Contrast in Consonants

Phonemic contrasts among consonants is the distinction in meaning that is created by the substitution of one consonant sound or phoneme for another. Specific phonemic contrasts among the consonants of a particular language are very important part of that language’s sound system and contribute a lot to its uniqueness. Different languages have different set of consonants and different phonemic contrasts among them. For example, some languages may have a contrast between voiced and voiceless consonants, such as the contrast between /p/ and /b/ in English; other languages may have a phonemic contrast between aspirated and unaspirated consonants such as the contrast between /p/ and /pʰ/ in Hindi. Phonemic contrasts among the consonants of Giharo mother tongue are as follows:

Consonants Contrast	in Word	Gloss	Word	Gloss
/p/ ~ /b/	/puro/	‘full’	/buro/	‘bad’
/pʰ/ ~ /t/	/pʰoɽbo/	‘to break (a pot)’	/toɽbo/	‘to break (a stick)’
/bʰ/ ~ /v/	/nabʰ/	‘naval’	/nav/	‘boat’
/m/ ~ /cʰ/	/moɽo/	‘fat’	/cʰoɽo/	‘small’
/c/ ~ /ɣ/	/car/	‘four’	/har/	‘necklace’
/ɣʰ/ ~ /kʰ/	/ɣʰopəɽi/	‘half’	/kʰopəɽi/	‘skull’
/k/ ~ /dʰ/	/kan/	‘ear’	/dʰan/	‘paddy’
/l/ ~ /g/	/sal/	‘shwal’	/saɣ/	‘spinach’
/gʰ/ ~ /m/	/gʰas/	‘grass’	/mas/	‘flesh’
/n/ ~ /ɳ/	/lon/	‘salt’	/loɳ/	‘clove’
/tʰ/ ~ /ɣ/	/aɽʰ/	‘eight’	/aɣ/	‘today’
/d/ ~ /dʰ/	/tʰəndʱa/	‘coldness’	/tʰəndʱa/	‘beam of the roof’
/s/ ~ /t/	/gʰas/	‘grass’	/gʰat/	‘jetty’

/t/ ~ /tʰ/	/tara/	‘star’	/tʰara/	‘plate’
/j/ ~ /d/	/jɔdʰ/	‘war’	/dudʰ/	‘milk’
/r/ ~ /ɽʰ/	/bar/	‘hair’	/baɽʰ/	‘flood’
/r/ ~ /ɽ/	/ʃor/	‘strength’	/ʃoɽ/	‘addition’

2.1.3 Supra-Segmental Phonemes

Supra-Segmental phonemes, also known as prosodic features or supra-segmentals refers those aspects of speech that extend over multiple phonemes or syllables. The supra-segmental features are generally phonemic in nature i.e. they can change the meaning of a word or sentence of a particular language.

(A) Length of Vowel

The length of vowel refers to the duration of its sound. Vowels can be either short or long and the length of vowel can be a phonemic feature in some languages, meaning that it can distinguish words with different meanings. This phenomenon can be explained with the help of several pair of vowels where the only difference between the words of each pair is the length of the vowel.

Vowels in Contrast	Word	Gloss	Word	Gloss
/ɪ/ ~ /i/	/cʰati/	‘roof’	/cʰati/	‘chest’
/ʊ/ ~ /u/	/sɔkʰo/	‘happiness’	/sukʰo/	‘dry’

Distribution of these short and long pair of vowels has already been shown in the section 2.1.1. under the heading of ‘Distribution of Vowels’.

(B) Nasalization

Nasalization of vowels is a phonetic feature that occurs when lung-air is allowed to flow through the nasal cavity during the production of a vowel sound. In other words, nasalization happens when a vowel is pronounced with the velum (soft palate) lowered, allowing the air to escape through the nose while the sound is being produced. This phenomenon can be explained with the help of several pair of vowels where the only difference between the words of each pair is the nasalized vowel. For example:

Vowels in Contrast	Word	Gloss	Word	Gloss
/a/ ~ /ã/	/bas/	‘bus’	/bãs/	‘bamboo’

Distribution of Nasalized Vowels:

Vowel	Initial		Medial		Final	
/ĩ/	/ĩt/	‘brick’	/k ^h icibo/	‘to pull’	— — —	— — —
/ẽ/	/ẽti/	‘heel’	/bẽcibo/	‘to sell’	/age ki læptẽ/	‘flame’
/ẽ/	— — —	— — —	/bẽgən/	‘brinjal’	/mẽ/	‘I’
/ǣ/	— — —	— — —	/b ^h ǣura/	‘whirlpool’	— — —	— — —
/ũ/	/ũt/	‘camel’	/sũgibo/	‘to sniff’	/gehũ/	‘wheat’
/õ/	/õt ^h /	‘lip’	/q ^h õsla/	‘nest’	/ʒõ/	‘leech’
/ã/	/ãt/	‘guts’	/pãc/	‘five’	/lhã/	‘here’

2.2. Syllabic Pattern:

The syllabic patterns refer to the specific agreement and organization of syllables within a word. It involves analyzing the number of syllables, type of syllables (such as open or closed) and the patterns of stress and rhythm. The syllabic patterns found in Giharo words are; monosyllabic, disyllabic, tri-syllabic and polysyllabic as follows;

Monosyllabic Pattern

Pattern	Example	
VC	/ĩt/	‘brick’
CV	/ve/	‘they’
CVV	/gaɪ/	‘cow’
CVC	/baɪ/	‘hair’
VCV	/alu/	‘potato’

Disyllabic Pattern

Pattern	Example	
CV-CV	/ritə/	‘season’
CV-CVC	/nəɾək/	‘hell’
CVC-CVC	/məɟdur/	‘labourer’
CVC-CV	/ləmbo/	‘tall’

Tri-syllabic Pattern

Pattern	Example	
CV-CVV-CVC	/ɾəsɔɪq ^h ər/	‘kitchen’

CV-CV-CV	/bãsuri/	‘flute’
CVC- CV- CV	/band ^h ibo/	‘to bind’
CVC-CVC-CV	/təpkajbo/	‘to drip’
CVC-CCV-CVC	/ʊɖjaləj/	‘school’

Polysyllabic Pattern

Pattern	Example	
CV-CV-CV-CV	/b ^h itərose/	‘through’
CV-CV-CVC-CV	/guliɖandɔ/	‘gilli danda’
CV-CVV-CV-CV	/əb ^h ətəko/	‘already’

3. MORPHOPHONEMICS

Morphophonemics is a branch of linguistics that studies the interactions between morphological and phonological processes in a language. It focuses on the ways in which meaning and function of words are influenced by their phonological structure and how phonological processes can shape the morphemic structure of words. Overall, this is an important area of linguistic study as it provides insights into how the sound system and the minimum meaningful units (morphemes) of a language interact with each other. There are few examples how morpho-phonemics operates in Giharo. These are as follows:

(A) Insertion

Insertion is a phonological process that involves the addition of a sound segment (mostly vowels) to a word causing a change in the morphemic level. Insertion generally occurs facilitate the pronunciation of a word by reducing the effort in pronunciation. Insertion is a very common process in many languages and we can find its traces in Giharo as well. For example,

Original Form	Gloss	Form After Vowel Insertion
/gərm/	‘hot’	/gəɾəm/
/nərm/	‘soft’	/nəɾəm/

(B) Deletion and Compensatory Lengthening

Compensatory lengthening is a phonological process in which deletion of certain consonants lead to the lengthening of vowels. This process occurs when a vowel sound is lengthened to fill the space left by the deletion of a consonant sound in the same or adjacent syllable. Various examples of compensatory lengthening can be found in Giharo.

Original Form	Gloss	Form After Compensatory Lengthening
/cəndrə/	‘moon’	/cāɖ/
/pəncə/	‘five’	/pāc/

In the above examples, the word-medial consonant clusters are simplified with the compensatory lengthening of the preceding vowels. If the cluster consisted of a nasal followed by a consonant, the nasal is deleted and the preceding vowel was lengthened and nasalized (Ohala, 1983); as we find in case of /cāɖ/ and /pāc/.

4. MORPHOLOGY

Morphology is a branch of linguistic studies that deals with the study of words, their internal structure, and the way they are formed and related to each other in a language. It is concerned with the analysis of the smallest meaningful units of language, called morphemes and the rules that govern their combination to form words. Morphology is a very crucial area of linguistic studies as it examines how morphemes are combined to form different types of words and also deals with the changes that occur within words to indicate different grammatical categories.

4.1. Word Formation Process

Word formation process refers to the ways in which new words are created or formed in language. It involves the application of various morphological rules and processes to existing words or parts of words to generate new lexical items that are recognized by the speakers of the language. Different languages have their own unique word formation processes and rules that speakers use to create new words. The common word formation processes present in Giharo are as follows:

A) Affixation

Affixation is morphological process in which a bound morpheme, called an affix, is added to a base or root word to create a new word or a word with a different meaning or function. An affix can be either a prefix which is attached to the beginning of a base word or a suffix which is added to the end of the base word.

Prefixation in Giharo

Prefix		Base Word			New Word
/əb ^h I-/	+	/man/	‘respect’	=	/əb ^h Iman/ ‘pride’
/əp-/	+	/mam/	‘respect’	=	/əpman/ ‘insult’

Suffixation in Giharo

Base Word			Suffix		New Word
/cor/	‘thief’	+	/-i/	=	/cori/ ‘theft’
/g ^h ər/	‘house’	+	/-ō/	=	/g ^h ərō/ ‘houses’

B) Compounding

Compounding is a word formation process in which two or more words are combined together to create a new word. In this process, the individual words are called constituent elements and the newly created word is called the compound. The following word will exemplify compounding as a word formation process in Giharo.

Noun			Noun		Compound Word
/bɛl/	‘horse’	+	/gaɾi/	‘vehicle’	= /bɛlgaɾi/ ‘bullock cart’
Adjective			Noun		Compound Word
/puʒa/	‘worship’	+	/gʰəɾ/	‘room’	= /puʒagʰəɾ/ ‘worship room’

C) Borrowing

Borrowing is a word formation process in which words are borrowed or adopted from one language into another. When a word is borrowed, it is often adopted to fit the phonological, morphological and syntactic rules of the borrowing language and thus it has been nativized in that particular language. Few examples of borrowed words from Giharo language are cited below:

Source Language	Word
English -	/kofi/ ‘coffee’
Persian/Arabic -	/təfan/ ‘storm’

4.2. Word Class

Word Class, also known as parts of speech, refers to a set of words that display the same formal properties, especially in their inflections and distribution. This is a grammatical category that classifies words based on their syntactic and semantic role in a sentence. The word classes that have been realized in Giharo are as follows:

Noun

Noun is a type of word class that represents a person, place, thing or concept. It is the most commonly found word class in any language and can be inflected to indicate grammatical categories such as number, gender and case.

Examples-	/kəɕʰʊʋ/	‘tortoise’
	/dudʰ/	‘milk’

Pronoun:

Pronouns are that type of word that can be used to replace or refer to a noun. Pronouns may be Personal, Demonstrative, Relative, Interrogative and Reflexive in nature.

Examples-	/təm/	‘you’
	/ʊo k ^h əd/	‘himself’

Verb

Verb is a type of word class that typically expresses an action, event or state of being. Verbs can be used to describe a wide range of actions or occurrences from physical movements to mental processes. Verbs can also be inflected to indicate the tense, aspect or mood of a sentence.

Examples-	/b ^h ōkɪbo/	‘to bark’
	/puc ^h ɪbo/	‘to ask’

Adjective

An adjective is a word class that describes or modifies a noun or pronoun by providing additional information about its qualities, characteristics or attributes.

Examples-	/həlko/	‘light’
	/ləmbo/	‘tall’

Adverb

An adverb is a word that modifies or describes a verb, adjective or other adverbs. Adverbs typically provide information about the manner, time, frequency, degree or place of an action.

Examples-	/dəjd/	‘neatly’
	/səvero/	‘morning’

Postposition

A postposition is a type of grammatical particle that is placed after a noun or pronoun to indicate its grammatical relationship with another element in the sentence. Postpositions are similar to prepositions which are placed before a noun or pronoun, but they are used in different languages.

Examples-	/pər/	‘on’
	/ma/, /me/	‘in’

Conjunction

A conjunction is a word class that connects words, phrases, clauses or sentences. Conjunctions can be used to express relationships between different elements in a sentence, such as addition, contrast, cause and effect etc.

Examples-	/əɔr/	‘and’
	/əgər/	‘if’

Interjection

Interjection is a word class that expresses some kind of emotions or sentiment in a sentence. There is no clear-cut evidence of interjection in Giharo. Intonation plays an important role here. The emotion is expressed by the speaker with the help of intonation.

Example-

/təm	kitne	ləmbe	ho	gov ho/
2SG	how	tall	be	go.PST
‘How tall you have grown!’				

Declinable and Indclinable Word Classes

These Giharo word classes can be broadly divided into two that is declinable and indeclinable categories, depending upon the nature of their own. Those word class which decline for number, gender, person etc. are referred to as Declinable category; for example, Noun, Pronoun, Adjective and Verb. And those which do not decline for number, gender, person etc. fall under the indeclinable category; for example; Postposition, Conjunction, Adverbs and Participle.

4.3. Noun Morphology

Noun is a member of the word class that includes words which refer to people, places, things, ideas, or concepts and whose members may act as any of the followings: subjects of the verb, objects of the verb, indirect object of the verb, or object of a preposition or postposition. Noun Morphology deals with the forms and classification of Nouns, Pronouns and their declensional/ inflectional pattern in association with Gender, Number, and Adjective etc. The nouns in the language are marked by two numbers (singular and plural), two genders (i.e. masculine, and feminine); and seven cases (nominative, accusative, dative, ablative, genitive, locative and instrumental).

4.3.1. Internal Structure

The internal structure of nouns includes two main components: the base or root word and any affixes (if any) added to it. Based on the internal structure of noun, it can be categorized into two broad classes, namely, (A) Basic Nouns and (B) Derived Nouns.

(A) Basic Nouns

Basic Nouns are those which are a word class by themselves and are not derived from any other word class.

Example:	/akəs/	‘sky’
	/səʔək/	‘road’

The Basic Nouns can be further divided into i) Countable Noun and ii) Uncountable Noun.

i) Uncountable Noun

An Uncountable Noun, also known as mass noun, refers to a noun that cannot be counted or quantified by a number. They are always in singular form.

Example:	/tel/	‘oil’
	/təp/	‘heat’

ii) Countable Noun

A Countable Noun refers to a noun that can be counted or qualified by a number and which can take some suffixes for indicating plurality.

Example:	/ləʔkə/	‘boy’
	/peʔ/	‘tree’

(B) Derived Noun

A noun that contains more than one morpheme by means of its root taking one or more affixes is called a Derived Noun. It refers to all those nouns which are derived from the same or any other word class. Derived Nouns are formed in two ways – i) By adding suffixes to other words or ii) By Compounding Words.

i) By adding suffixes to other words

Root/ Base Word			Suffix		New Word
/kaɪd/	‘prison’	+	/-i/	=	/kaɪdi/ ‘prisoner’

/pagəl/ ‘mad’ + /-pən/ = /pagəlpən/ ‘insanity’

ii) By Compounding Words

Word		Word		Compound Word	
/g ^h oɾɑ/	‘horse’	+	/gaɾi/	‘vehicle’	= /g ^h oɾagaɾi/ ‘horse coach’
/gɪlli/	‘wooden ball’	+	/d̪ənd̪ɑ/	‘stick’	= /gɪlɪd̪ənd̪ɑ/ ‘a game’

4.3.2. External Structure

External structure of nouns is very important to understand in order to use it correctly in a sentence and to modify it appropriately with other words. Number, Gender and Case are very important external structures of noun as they affect the ways it modifies the other lexical categories in a sentence as well as the way sentences are constructed to convey a particular meaning.

(A) Number

Number is a grammatical category which is morphologically marked at the noun or noun phrase. In nominal inflections there are generally two morphologically marked numbers i.e. Singular and Plural (some languages can have ‘dual’ number). Singular is the default value for number which is generally left unmarked and plurality is marked by affixing plural markers to the base form. The detailed description of the number system in Giharo is as follows:

- In some cases, number distinction is realized through Zero Modification -

Plural Morpheme	Singular		Plural	
/-Ø/	/mor/	‘peacock’	/mor/	‘peacocks’
	/hat ^h /	‘hand’	/hat ^h /	‘hands’

- In some cases, number distinction is realized through Alteration of Vowel -

Vowels	Singular		Plural	
/a/ → /e/	/ləɾka/	‘boy’	/ləɾke/	‘boys’
	/g ^h oɾɑ/	‘horse’	/g ^h oɾe/	‘horses’

- In some cases, number distinction is realized through Suffixation -

Plural Morpheme	Singular		Plural	
/ẽ/	/kɪtab/	‘book’	/kɪtabẽ/	‘books’
/õ/	/qʰəɾ/	‘house’	/qʰəɾõ/	‘houses’
/ã/	/tɔkɾi/	‘basket’	/tɔkɾiã/	‘baskets’

(B) Gender

Gender is a grammatical category that distinguishes nouns, pronouns and adjectives by the different inflections which they have and which determines their relationship with other words that are syntactically associated with them. Gender is a grammatical category in Giharo, i.e. the gender distinction in noun and pronoun has its effect on the syntactic structure of the language. Gender distinction in Giharo can be realized in the following ways:

- In some cases, gender distinction is indicated through separate set of lexical items -

Masculine		Feminine	
/səsɔɾ/	‘father-in-law’	/sas/	‘mother-in-law’
/bʰaɪja/	‘brother’	/bʰəɔʃi/	‘brother’s wife’

- In some cases, gender distinction is indicated by alteration of vowel -

Masculine		Feminine	
/gʰoɾa/	‘horse’	/gʰoɾi/	‘mare’
/baɾaro/	‘son’	/baɾari/	‘daughter’

- In some cases, gender distinction is indicated by adding the suffix /-ni/ -

Masculine		Feminine	
/pəti/	‘husband’	/pətini/	‘wife’
/səmdʰi/	‘daughter-in-law’s father’	/səmdʰini/	‘daughter-in-law’s father’

- In some cases, gender distinction is indicated by adding the suffix /-ani/ -

Masculine		Feminine	
/deur/	‘husband’s younger brother’	/deurani/	‘husband’s younger brother’s wife’
/ʒetʰ/	‘husband’s elder brother’	/ʒetʰani/	‘husband’s elder brother’s wife’

(C) Case

Case is a grammatical category that marks the relationship between a noun or pronoun and other elements within a sentence, such as, the verb, prepositions or other nouns. A case typically indicates the syntactic role of a noun or pronoun in a sentence, such as Subject, object, possessive, genitive, dative, accusative etc. The case of a noun or pronoun is typically indicated by inflectional ending that is added to the base form of the word.

i) Nominative Case

The nominative case generally marks the subject of a verb or the predicate noun or predicate adjective which is either a noun or a pronoun. The nominative case in Giharo is unmarked or marked as null (*/Ø/*) as shown in the following examples;

- /mẽ- Ø ihã ad rəhũ/
1SG-NOM here come-1SG.M.
‘I come here’
- /ramɔ-Ø kali nai ahũ/
‘3SG-NOM tomorrow NEG. be.FUT.3SG.M
‘Ramu will not come tomorrow’

ii) Accusative Case

Accusative case is the case found in nominative-accusative languages that marks certain syntactic functions, usually the direct objects of the verbs. In Giharo accusative case is sometimes unmarked (*/Ø/*) and sometimes marked by (*/-ko/*) as in the following instances:

- /ʒo ciʔəɪ-Ø dekʰ-ʋa hosa/
3SG-NOM bird-ACC see-PRFV.3SG.F be.PRS.3SG
‘It will have seen the bird’

- /ʊe bəʃar me cor-ko pəkəʃve tʰe/
3PL market LOC thief-ACC catch be.PST.3PL
'They caught the thief in market.'

iii) Instrumental Case

Instrumental case is used to denote the instrument with which the action is performed. It indicates the referent of the noun. Instrumental case marker is realized as */-se/* in Giharo. Following sentences will exemplify this:

- /mere kəlme-se lɪkʰ-o/
1SG.GEN pen-INS write-IMP
'Write with my pen'
- /kēci-se bar-ko kaʃo/
scissors-INS hair-ACC cut.PRFV.PRS
'The hair is cut with scissors.'

iv) Dative Case

The dative case designates the indirect object of a transitive verb. Nouns having the role of recipient (as of things given), beneficiary of an action, or possessor of an item are datives. The context plays a crucial factor in differentiating between dative and accusative. In Giharo, the dative case is also marked by */-ko/* as in the following examples:

- /sərkər-Ø gəribā-ko ruʔəɪ-Ø ded rəhũ/
'Government-NOM poor-PL-DAT money-ACC give be.PRS.3SG
'The Government gives money to poor'
- /ram-ne sam-ko kɪtab-Ø dehe/
ram-ERG shyam-DAT book-ACC give.PST.3SG
'Ram gave this book to Shyam'

v) Ablative Case

Ablative case is a case that expresses movement of the subject or the object from one place to another either at the spatial plane or at the temporal plane. In Giharo language ablative case marker is */-se/* as shown in the following examples:

- /peʃ-se pata ɡɪʔ-de rəhẽ/
tree-ABL leaf fall-IPFV be.PRS.3PL
'The leaves fall from the tree'

- /ʋo me-re kʰɪrki-se ɡɪrʋa tʰa/
3SG 1SG.GEN window-ABL fall-PST
'He fell down from my window'

vi) Genitive Case

Genitive case expresses the meaning of belonging to or possession of something by the subject. In Giharo the genitive case is marked by */-ro/*, */-re/* or */-ri/* (for 1st person and 2nd person) and */-ko/* or */-ke/* or */-ki/* (for 3rd person). The markers of the case vary depending upon the gender and number of the object that belongs to the marked nouns.

- /me-ro baɾaro-Ø/
1.SG.GEN child-SG.M
'My child'
- /həm-re hatʰ/
1.PL.GEN hand-PL
'Our hands'
- /me-ri behen/
1.PL.GEN sister
'My sister'
- /təm-ro ɡʰər/
2.SG.GEN house-SG.M
'Your house'
- /təm-ri do kɪtabẽ/
2.SG.GEN two book-PL
'Two books of yours'
- /təm-re ɡʰərõ/
2.SG.GEN house-PL.M
'Your houses'
- /ʋa-ki tɔkəri/
3.SG.GEN.F basket-PL
'Her baskets'
- /ʋo-ko ɡʰər/
3SG.GEN.M house-SG
'His house'

- /ʋo-**ke** g^hər-õ/
3.SG.GEN.M house-PL
'His houses'

vii) Locative Case:

Locative case is a case that expresses location at the referent of the noun it marks. The location of the subject or object is expressed by the locative case markers or postpositions. In Giharo, the locative case is realized as shown in the following examples:

- /həm bəʃar--Ø ʃad rəhã/
1.PL market-LOC go-PRS be.PRS.1PL
'We go to the market'
- /mera baʃar-a ɪskul-**ma** rəhã/
1SG.Gen child-PL school-LOC be.PRS.3PL
'My children are in the school'
- /tota peʃ **pər** rəhe/
parrot tree LOC be-PRS.3SG
'The parrot is on the tree'

viii) Ergativity in Giharo

An ergative language is a language that treats the subject of an intransitive verb like the object of a transitive verb, but treats the agent of a transitive verb differently. Giharo is neither strictly ergative nor strictly accusative (i.e. a language that marks the objects of transitive verbs, distinguishing them from the subject of both intransitive and transitive verbs). Maibnpuri exhibits 'split-ergativity' i.e. the context determines whether Giharo will exhibit 'ergative alignment' or 'accusative alignment'. In Giharo, sometimes a verb agrees with its object, not with its subject. This phenomenon is sometimes called 'ergativity'.

In Giharo, when a verb is transitive and perfective/perfect, it generally exhibits ergative alignment. This means in such contexts transitive verbs agree with the object, not the agent. In other words, when a verb is transitive and perfective/perfect, the agent of the transitive verb is in the oblique case (i.e. any noun case except the nominative case) and followed by the postposition /ne/, and the verb agrees with the object in person, number and gender. The post position /ne/ blocks the agent; thus, the verb cannot agree with the subject (agent), rather it agrees with the object. This phenomenon can be explained with the help of the following examples:

- /ram-**ne** mere kəlme-se ciʈʈhi-Ø lɪk^hʋa t^ha/
ram-ERG 1SG.GEN pen-INS letter-ACC write.PFV.3SG
'Ram wrote the letter with my pen'

- /sita-**ne** mēhmanō-ko k^hana--Ø pərsi t^hi/
sita-ERG guest-PL-DAT food-ACC. serve-PFV.3SG
‘Sita served the food to the guests’

In the first example, although the agent /ram/ ‘Ram’ is masculine, the verb /lɪk^hi/ ‘wrote’ is feminine, since the object /cɪt^hi/ ‘letter’ is feminine. On the contrary, in the second example, although the agent /sita/ ‘Sita’ is feminine, the verb /pərsi t^hi/ ‘served’ is masculine, since the object /k^hana/ ‘food’ is masculine.

4.3.3. Pronoun

A pronoun is a word class or a part of speech which can substitute a single noun or a noun phrase. It can also take number, gender and case markers like the noun. But the functional difference between a noun and a pronoun is that the pronoun cannot take an determiner and pronoun can be used in all persons whereas a noun always refers to the third person. Giharo has following types of pronouns:

- Personal Pronoun
- Demonstrative Pronoun
- Reflexive Pronoun
- Interrogative Pronoun
- Indefinite Pronoun

i) Personal Pronoun

A personal pronoun refers to a specific person or thing and changes its form to indicate person, number, gender and case. The personal pronoun system in Giharo distinguishes for two numbers and three persons.

Person	Singular		Plural	
First Person	/mɛ/	‘I’	/həm/	‘we’
Second Person	/təm/	‘you’	/təmlog/	‘you (PL)’
Third Person	/vo/ or /va/, /vo/	‘he/she/it’	/ve/	‘they’

ii) Demonstrative Pronoun

Demonstrative Pronouns are deictic words that indicate which entities a speaker refers to and distinguish those entities from others. The demonstrative pronouns either of proximate or remote types is realized in two numbers that is singular and plural which are shown below. The collected data illustrates the fact that Giharo has two kinds of demonstrative pronouns-remote and proximate.

Pronouns	Proximate		Remote	
Singular	/ʃo/	‘this’	/ɪnək/	‘that’
Plural	/ʊəh/	‘these’	/ʊnək/	‘those’

iii) Reflexive Pronoun

A reflexive pronoun is a pronoun that is preceded by the noun, adjective, adverb or pronoun to which it refers (its antecedent) within the same clause. A reflexive pronoun is an anaphor that must be bound by its antecedent in its local domain. In Giharo, reflexive pronouns are:

Reflexive Pronoun

/mẽ kʰɔd/	‘myself’
/həm kʰɔd/	‘ourselves’
/təm kʰɔd/	‘yourself’
/ʊo kʰɔd/	‘himself’

iv) Interrogative Pronoun

An interrogative pronoun is a function word for the item enquired in an information statement. Interrogative are also called ‘wh’-words in English.

Interrogative Pronoun

/ka/	‘what’
/kəb/	‘when’
/kəhã/	‘where’
/kjũ/	‘why’
/kɑɔn/	‘who’

v) Indefinite Pronoun

The pronouns which are used to denote some non-definite person or thing instead of definite person or thing are called Indefinite pronouns.

Indefinite Pronoun

/koibʰi/	‘anyone’
/səb/	‘everybody’
/səbã/	‘all’

4.3.4. Person:

Person is a grammatical category, used in the classification of pronouns, possessive determiners and verb forms, according to whether they indicate the speaker (first person), the

addressee (second person) or a third party (third person). They are distinguished in all the tenses and moods and are also in different concordial relationship with the verb which will be shown in detail in the section of finite verbs. Example:

Person	Singular		Plural	
First Person	/mẽ/	‘I’	/həm/	‘we’
Second Person	/təm/	‘you’	/təmlog/	‘you (PL)’
Third Person	/vo/ or /va/, /vo/	‘he/she/it’	/ve/	‘they’

4.4. Adjectives

An adjective is a word that belongs to a class whose members modify nouns and pronouns. An adjective specifies the properties or attributes of a noun (or pronoun) referent. Adjectives are used to add more detail and description to a sentence and help to form a clearer image of the noun being described.

4.4.1. Basic and Derived Adjectives

(A) Basic Adjective

Basic Adjectives are those which are a word class by themselves and are not derived from any other word class. Basic Adjectives can be divided into two types; they are – i) Attributive Adjective and ii) Predicative Adjective.

i) Attributive Adjective

Attributive adjective is an adjective that describes or modifies noun and is usually placed before the noun it modifies; as shown in the following examples:

/c ^h oʈe baʈara/	‘small children’
/æc ^h o baʈaro/	‘good boy’

ii) Predicative Adjective

Predicative adjective is an adjective that comes after the linking verb or the subject of the sentence that it describes.

/vəh baʈari beheri ha/	‘That girl is deaf’
/ʔnək baʈariã sɔndər hẽ/	‘Those girls are beautiful’

(B) Derived Adjective

An adjective that contains more than one morpheme by means of its root taking one or more affixes is called a Derived Adjective. It refers to all those adjectives which are derived from any other word class such as, noun, verb etc.

Word		Suffix		Derived Adjective
/rog/	‘disease’	+ /-i/	=	/rogi/ ‘patient’
/dəja/	‘kindness’	+ /-lu/	=	/dəjalʊ/ ‘kind’

4.4.2. Quantitative, Qualitative and Demonstrative Adjectives

(i) Quantitative Adjective

Quantitative adjective is a type of adjective that indicates the quantity, amount or number of something. These adjectives are used to describe the size, quantity or number of a noun in a sentence. Examples of quantitative adjectives in Giharo are as follows:

Quantitative Adjective

/tʰoro/	‘little’
/tin/	‘three’
/dusra/	‘second’

(ii) Qualitative Adjective

Qualitative adjective is a type of adjective that describes the quality or characteristic of a noun or pronoun. It is used to describe the nature, appearance, shape, size, colour, taste/smell etc. of something. Examples of qualitative adjectives in Giharo are as follows:

/buro/	‘bad’
/patro/	‘thin’
/pila/	‘yellow’

(iii) Demonstrative Adjective

Demonstrative adjective is a type of adjective that is used to indicate or point out a specific noun in a sentence. When pronominal forms are used as an adjective to demonstrate the nouns, they are called Demonstrative Adjectives.

/ʒo/	‘this’
/vəh/	‘that’

/ɪnək/
/ʊnək/

‘these’
‘those’

4.4.4. Numerals

Numerals are those words or symbols that are used to represent number or quantities. They are used to count, measure and identify quantities of things, people or events. Numerals can be classified as – Cardinal Numbers, Ordinal Numbers and Fractional Numbers. Giharo has a decimal number system where the numbers are represented with the base of ‘ten’.

- **Cardinal Numbers**

Cardinal numbers are that type of numerals that are used to represent a specific quantity or number of things, people or events. Example of Cardinal numbers of Giharo are as follows:

Cardinal Number		Cardinal Number	
/ek/	‘one’	/ɪkəɪs/	‘twenty-one’
/do/	‘two’	/pāɪtɪs /	‘thirty-five’
/tɪn/	‘three’	/ʊnɔːlɪs/	‘thirty-nine’
/cɑːr/	‘four’	/ɪkəʊən/	‘fifty-five’
/pāc/	‘five’	/ɪksəʈʰ/	‘sixty-one’
/cʰɛ/	‘six’	/ʊnhəʈtər/	‘sixty-nine’
/sət/	‘seven’	/ɪkʃəsɪ/	‘eighty-one’
/aʈʰ/	‘eight’	/ɪkʃənve/	‘ninety-one’
/noʊ/	‘nine’	/soʊ/	‘hundred’
/dəs/	‘ten’	/tɪnsoʊ/	‘three hundred’
/bara/	‘twelve’	/həʃər/	‘thousand’

- **Ordinal Numbers**

Ordinal numbers are that type of numerals that are used to indicate the position or order of an object or event in a sequence. Example of Ordinal numbers of Giharo are as follows:

/pəhla/
/dusra/
/tɪsra/

‘first’
‘second’
‘third’

- **Fractional Numbers**

Fractional numbers, also known as fractions are that type of numerals which are used represent parts of a whole or a quantity that is not a whole number. Example of fractional numbers of Giharo are as follows:

/pav/	‘quarter’
/ad ^h a/	‘half’
/deɾ ^h /	‘one and half’

Formation of Higher Numerals in Giharo

Higher numerals are formed by adding allomorphs of numerical units (1-9) to the allomorphs of base unit.

/ba/	‘two’	+	/-ra/	‘decimal marker’	=	/bara/	‘twelve’
/pāc/	‘five’	+	/-ra/	‘decimal marker’	=	/pāndəra/	‘fifteen’
/ek/	‘one’	+	/bis/	‘twenty’	=	/ikais/	‘twenty-one’
/ɔn/	‘one less than’	+	/tis/	‘thirty’	=	/ɔnis/	‘nineteen’
/ek/	‘one’	+	/tis/	‘thirty’	=	/iktis/	‘thirty-one’
/ɔn/	‘one less than’	+	/calis/	‘forty’	=	/ɔntalis/	‘thirty nine’
/c ^h ε/	‘six’	+	/sq ^h /	‘sixty’	=	/iksəɾ ^h /	‘sixty-one’
/ɔn/	‘one less than’	+	/səttəɾ/	‘seventy’	=	/ɔnəttəɾ/	‘sixty-nine’
/pāc/	‘five’	+	/nəve/	‘ninety’	=	/pācəve/	‘eighty-one’
/tin/	‘three’	+	/soɔ/	‘hundred’	=	/tinsəɔ/	‘three hundred’
/pāc/	‘five’	+	/soɔ/	‘hundred’	=	/pācsəɔ/	‘five hundred’

4.5. Verb Morphology

Verb Morphology deals with the forms of verbs and their declensional/ inflectional pattern in association with Tense, Aspect, Mood, etc. Verbs in Giharo can be of different type, depending upon the nature and form of the verbs. Giharo verbs in terms of complexity can be divided into two i.e. basic verb stem and complex verb which further can be divided into several sub groups such as conjunct and compound verb. Giharo verbs in terms of function may be of helping verb or main verb; in terms of agreement feature Giharo verbs are divided into two that is finite and nonfinite verbs and in terms of uses it may of several types. These all we can see under following headings-

4.5.1. Types of Verbs

In terms of uses verbs can be of several types –

- **Physical Activity Verbs**

/piʈɪbo/	‘to beat (somebody)’
/kaʈɪbo/	‘to bite’

- **Instrument Verbs:**

/pʰaʈɪbo/	‘split (wood)’
/kəpɾa kaʈɪbo/	‘to cut (cloth)’

- **Verbs of Fighting**

/həmla kəɪbo/	‘to attack’
/kəsti ləʈɪbo/	‘to wrestle’

- **Music Verbs**

/naɪbo/	‘to dance’
/gana gaɪbo/	‘to sing’

- **Motion Verbs**

/əpəɾ cəʈʰɪbo/	‘to rise’
/ɟaɪbo/	‘to go’

- **Occupational Verbs**

/sɛf kəɪbo/	‘to clean’
/ɪlɛɟ kəɪbo/	‘to cure (an illness)’

- **Culinary Verbs**

/caki piɪbo/	‘to grind’
/mɪlaɪbo/	‘to mix’

- **Cosmetic Verbs**

/kəŋgʰi kəɪbo/	‘to comb (hair)’
/bandʰɪbo/	‘to tie (hair)’

- **Communication Verbs**

/puɕʰɪbo	‘to ask (to question)’
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/bɔlɔjbo/ 'to call'

- **Non-Motion Verbs**

/cʰɔpɔbo/ 'to hide'

/mɔɾ ʃɔjbo/ 'to die'

- **Inchoative Verbs**

/pɛkɪbo/ 'to ripe (as a fruit)'

/ɔgɪbo/ 'to sprout'

- **Cognitive Verbs**

/sɔpno dekʰɪbo/ 'to dream'

/sɪkʰɪbo/ 'to learn'

- **Sensory Verbs**

/dekʰɪbo/ 'to see'

/sojbo/ 'to sleep'

- **Emotive Verbs**

/sɔtɔjbo/ 'to annoy'

/cɪllɔjbo/ 'to scream'

4.5.2. Classification of Verbs

Classification of verbs refers to the categorization of verbs based on their use, function, syntactic and semantic properties etc. There are several ways to classify verbs:

(I) Verbs in terms of Function

Verbs in term of function can be divided into two i.e. **Main Verbs (MV)** and **Auxiliary Verbs (AUX)**. Main verb is a type of verb which denotes an action, event or state in a sentence while Auxiliaries are a type of verb which helps to the main verb. Like most of the Indian languages, Giharo Auxiliary too follows the main verb. The auxiliary verbs in Giharo are of two types i.e. Primary and Modals as in the followings examples:

- /ɔkarɔ ɔhã kʰɛɾɛhi ɾəhũ/
dog there stand (MV) AUX
'The dog is standing there.'

- /vo əb^hi b^hi əv səkduvə hɑ/
3SG.M still come (MV) MOD AUX
'He may still come.'

(II) Verbs in terms of Forms

In terms of form, verbs can be divided into two categories; they are – (A) Base Verbs, (B) Compound Verbs and (C) Conjunct Verbs.

(A) Base Verbs

Base verbs, also known as the base forms or infinitives, are the most basic form of a verb that usually appears in the dictionary. Base verbs can function as the main verb in a sentence. They can also be used in combination with auxiliary verbs to form various tenses and moods. Examples of base verbs from Giharo are as follows:

/hāsibo/	'to laugh'
/sojbo/	'to sleep'
/sik ^h ibo/	'to learn'

(B) Compound Verbs

Compound Verb refers to a complex verb form that comprises of a 'Main Verb' as a 'bare stem' (krdant) and a secondary element called the 'helping verb' that bears the information of tense and agreement. This secondary element has been variously termed as explicator, operator, auxiliary, vector etc. In Giharo, these vectors constitute a small class of typically motion verbs like /ɟajbo/ 'to go', /bəit^hibo/ 'to sit', /dibo/ 'to give', /libo/ 'to take' etc. Examples of compound verbs of Giharo are as follows:

Main Verb	Helping Verb	Compound Verb
/pōc ^h ibo/ 'to wipe' + /dibo/ 'to give' = /pōc ^h i dibo/ 'to take out'		
/bənaibo/ 'to make' + /dibo/ 'to give' = /bənaɪ dibo/ 'to make to give someone'		

(C) Conjunct Verbs

Conjunct Verb refers to a complex verb form that comprises of a 'Noun' or 'Adjective' and a verb that bears the information of tense and agreement (Bhat, R.N. 2002). Examples of compound verbs of Giharo are as follows:

Noun		Verb		Conjunct Verb	
/ʃhəgɾa/	‘quarrel’	+	/kəɾibo/ ‘to do’	=	/ʃhəgɾa kəɾibo/ ‘to repair’
/kəŋg ^{hi} /	‘comb’	+	/kəɾibo/ ‘to do’	=	/kəŋg ^{hi} kəɾibo/ ‘to help’
Adjective		Verb		Conjunct Verb	
/saf/	‘clean’	+	/kəɾibo/ ‘to do’	=	/saf kəɾibo/ ‘to clean’
/k ^h ali/	‘right’	+	/kəɾibo/ ‘to do’	=	/k ^h ali kəɾibo/ ‘to vacate’

(III) Verbs in terms of Transitivity

Transitivity is a grammatical term that refers to whether a verb requires an object or not. A transitive verb is a verb that requires an object to complete its meaning, while an intransitive verb does not require an object. In terms of transitivity, verbs can be divided into three categories; they are – (A) Intransitive Verbs, (B) Transitive Verbs and (C) Ditransitive Verbs.

(A) Intransitive Verbs

Intransitive verbs are those verbs that do not require any object to complete their meaning. Examples of Intransitive verbs of Giharo are as follows:

Intransitive Verb		Example	
/ajbo/	‘to come’	/baɾaro ihā ad rəhe/	‘The child comes here’
/ʃajbo/	‘to go’	/mē bəɟar ʃad rəhū/	‘I go to the market’

(B) Transitive Verbs

Transitive verbs are those verbs that require an object to complete their meaning. Examples of Intransitive verbs of Giharo are as follows:

Transitive Verb		Example	
/k ^h ajbo/	‘to eat’	/mē roɟi k ^h ad rəhū/	‘I eat bread’
/dek ^h ibo/	‘to see’	/va ciɾa dek ^h ad rəha/	‘He sees the bird’

(C) Ditransitive Verbs

Ditransitive verbs are those verbs that require two objects i.e. a direct object and an indirect object. The direct object receives the action of the verb, while the indirect object indicates to or for whom the action is being performed. Examples of Ditransitive verbs of Giharo are as follows:

Transitive Verb		Example	
/dena/	‘to give’	/ɾamne samko kɪtab dehe/	‘Ram gave the book to shyam’
/k ^h ana dena/	‘to serve’	/sitane mēhmanōko k ^h ana pərsi t ^h i/	‘Sita served the food to the guests’

(IV) Verbs in terms of Finiteness

Finiteness is a grammatical term that refers to whether a verb form shows tense, aspect and mood agreement with a subject. In terms of finiteness verbs are divided into two categories; they are (A) Finite Verbs and (B) Non-Finite Verbs.

(A) Finite Verb

A finite verb is a verb form that occurs in an independent clause and expresses a specific action, state or condition which is performed or undergone by the subject of the sentence. Having the verb roots as the base form, both Finite and Non-finite verbs are realised in Giharo. Finite verbs convey several grammatical categories that includes (i) Tense, (ii) Aspect and (iii) Mood. In Giharo, finite verbs are formed by adding different suffixes to the verb roots/stems. These suffixes are the markers for different tense, aspect and mood of the verbs and they maintain an agreement with the person, number and gender of the subject or object of a sentence.

(i) Tense

Tense is a grammatical category that refers to the time at which an action has been taken place or a state of being has existed. Each tense is indicated by specific verb forms which changes according to the person, number and gender of the subject and the time frame of the action. Giharo has three tenses: Present, Past and Future. Different verb forms are available for different person, number and gender in different tenses. Formation of the verb /ɟajbo/ ‘to go’ for different number, gender and person in three different tenses have been shown below:

a. Present Tense

A tense that expresses an action that is currently going on or habitually performed or a state that currently or generally exists is called Present Tense. In Giharo present tense according to different person, number and gender is realized as the following:

Formation of Present Indefinite Tense:

Person	Pronominal form	Verb + Tense-png marker + Aux.	
1SG	/mẽ/	/ʃa+d+rəhũ/	'I go'
1PL	/həm/	/ʃa+d+rəhã/	'We go'
2SG	/təm/	/ʃa+d+rəho/	'You (SG) go'
2PL	/təmlog/	/ʃa+d+rəho/	'You (PL) go'
3SG	/ʋo/	/ʃa+d+rəhe/	'He goes'
3PL	/ʋe/	/ʃa+d+rəhẽ/	'They go'

Example:

Person	Sentences	
1 st Person Singular	/mẽ bəʃar ʃad rəhũ/	'I go to the market'
1 st Person Plural	/həm bəʃar ʃad rəhã/	'We go to the market'
2 nd Person Singular	/təm bəʃar ʃad rəho/	'You (SG) go to the market'
2 nd Person Plural	/təmlog bəʃar ʃad rəho/	'You (PL) go to the market'
3 rd Person Singular	/ʋo bəʃar ʃad rəha/	'He goes to the market'
3 rd Person Plural	/ʋe bəʃar ʃad rəhẽ/	'They go to the market'

b. Past Tense

A tense that expresses an action that has happened or a state that previously existed is called Past Tense. In Giharo past tense according to different person, number and gender is realized in the following ways:

Formation of Past Indefinite Tense

Person	Pronominal form	Verb + Tense-png marker + Aux.	
1SG	/mẽ/	/gəʋ+ɔ+t ^h u/	'I went'
1PL	/həm/	/gəʋ+a+t ^h a/	'We went'
2SG	/təm/	/gəʋ+e+t ^h e/	'You (SG) went'
2PL	/təmlog/	/gəʋ+e+t ^h e/	'You (PL) went'
3SG	/ʋo/	/gəʋ+a+t ^h a/	'He went'
3PL	/ʋe/	/gəʋ+e+t ^h e/	'They went'

Example:

Person	Sentences	
1 st Person Singular	/mẽ bəʃar gəʋɔ t ^h u/	'I went to the market'

1 st Person Plural	/həm bəʃar gəʋa t ^h a/	‘We went to the market’
2 nd Person Singular	/təm bəʃar gəʋe t ^h e/	‘You (SG) went to the market’
2 nd Person Plural	/təmlog bəʃar gəʋe t ^h e/	‘You (PL) went to the market’
3 rd Person Singular	/ʋo bəʃar gəʋa t ^h a/	‘He went to the market’
3 rd Person Plural	/ʋe bəʃar gəʋe t ^h e/	‘They went to the market’

c. Future Tense

A tense that expresses an action that has not yet happened or a state that does not yet exist is called Future Tense. In Giharo, future tense according to different person, number and gender is realized in the following ways:

Formation of Future Indefinite Tense

Person	Pronominal form	Verb + png + Tense marker	
1SG	/mẽ/	/ʃa+hũ/	‘I will go’
1PL	/həm/	/ʃa+hã/	‘We will go’
2SG	/təm/	/ʃa+ho/	‘You (SG) will go’
2PL	/təmlog/	/ʃa+ho/	‘You (PL) will go’
3SG	/ʋo/	/ʃa+he/	‘He will go’
3PL	/ʋe/	/ʃa+hẽ/	‘They will go’

Example:

Person	Sentences	
1 st Person Singular	/mẽ bəʃar ʃahũ /	‘I will go to the market’
1 st Person Plural	/həm bəʃar ʃahã/	‘We will go to the market’
2 nd Person Singular	/təm bəʃar ʃaho/	‘You (SG) will go to the market’
2 nd Person Plural	/təmlog bəʃar ʃaho/	‘You (PL) will go to the market’
3 rd Person Singular	/ʋo bəʃar ʃahe/	‘He will go to the market’
3 rd Person Plural	/ʋe bəʃar ʃahẽ/	‘They will go to the market’

(ii) Aspect

Aspect is a grammatical category associated with verbs that expresses a temporal view of the event or state expressed by the verb. Giharo has 3 aspects interpreted in different tenses – a. Progressive or Imperfective, b. Perfective and c. Habitual. Formation of the verb /ʃajbo/ ‘to go’ for different number, gender and person in three different aspects have been shown below:

Progressive or Imperfective Aspect

Progressive aspect is a grammatical aspect that describes an ongoing, continuous or repeated action that is not yet completed or is viewed as incomplete, regardless of whether it is happening in the present, past or future. In Giharo, Progressive aspect is realized in all the three tenses and the auxiliary verbs carry the tense markers in the progressive aspect.

- **Present Progressive Aspect**

The present progressive aspect is a grammatical aspect that describes an ongoing, continuous or repeated action that is currently taking place in the present time and yet not completed or viewed as complete.

Formation of Present Progressive Aspect

Person	Pronominal form	Verb + Aspect-png marker + Aux	
1SG	/mẽ/	/ʒa+rəhi+rəhũ/	‘I am going’
1PL	/həm/	/ʒa+rəhi+rəhã/	‘We are going’
2SG	/təm/	/ʒa+rəhi+rəho/	‘You (SG) are going’
2PL	/təmsəb/	/ʒa+rəhi+rəho/	‘You (PL) are going’
3SG	/bu/	/ʒa+rəhi+rəhe/	‘He is going’
3PL	/be/	/ʒa+rəhi+rəhẽ/	‘They are going’

Example:

Person	Sentences	
1 st Person Singular	/mẽ bəʒar ʒa rəhi rəhũ/	‘I am going to the market’
1 st Person Plural	/həm bəʒar ʒa rəhi rəhã/	‘We are going to the market’
2 nd Person Singular	/təm bəʒar ʒa rəhi rəho/	‘You (SG) are going to the market’
2 nd Person Plural	/təmlɔg bəʒar ʒa rəhi rəho/	‘You (PL) are going to the market’
3 rd Person Singular	/bo bəʒar ʒa rəhi rəhe/	‘He is going to the market’
3 rd Person Plural	/be bəʒar ʒa rəhi rəhẽ/	‘They are going to the market’

- **Past Progressive Aspect**

The past progressive aspect is a grammatical aspect that describes an ongoing, continuous or repeated action that was taking place in the past and was not completed yet or viewed as incomplete at a specific time in the past.

Formation of Past Progressive Aspect

Person	Pronominal form	Verb + Aspect-png marker + Aux	
1SG	/mẽ/	/ʒa+rəhi+rut/	‘I was going’
1PL	/həm/	/ʒa+rəhi+rat/	‘We were going’
2SG	/təm/	/ʒa+rəhi+rot/	‘You (SG) were going’
2PL	/təmlɔg/	/ʒa+rəhi+rot/	‘You (PL) were going’
3SG	/ʊo/	/ʒa+rəhi+rat/	‘He was going’
3PL	/ʊe/	/ʒa+rəhi+ret/	‘They were going’

Example:

Person	Sentences	
1 st Person Singular	/mẽ bəʒar ʒa rəhi rət/	‘I was going to the market’
1 st Person Plural	/həm bəʒar ʒa rəhi rat/	‘We were going to the market’
2 nd Person Singular	/təm bəʒar ʒa rəhi rot/	‘You (SG) were going to the market’
2 nd Person Plural	/təmlɔg bəʒar ʒa rəhi rot/	‘You (PL) were going to the market’
3 rd Person Singular	/ʊo bəʒar ʒa rəhi rat/	‘He was going to the market’
3 rd Person Plural	/ʊe bəʒar ʒa rəhi ret/	‘They were going to the market’

• Future Progressive Aspect

The future progressive aspect is a grammatical aspect that describes an ongoing, continuous or repeated action that will be taking place in the future and will not yet be completed or viewed as incomplete at a specific time in the future.

Formation of Future Progressive Aspect

Person	Pronominal form	Verb + Aspect-png marker + Aux	
1SG	/mẽ/	/ʒa+rəhi+rũ/	‘I shall be going’
1PL	/həm/	/ʒa+rəhi+rã/	‘We will be going’
2SG	/təm/	/ʒa+rəhi+ro/	‘You (SG) will be going’
2PL	/təmlɔg/	/ʒa+rəhi+ro/	‘You (PL) will be going’
3SG	/ʊo/	/ʒa+rəhi+ra/	‘He will be going’
3PL	/ʊe/	/ʒa+rəhi+rẽ/	‘They will be going’

Example:

Person	Sentences	
1 st Person Singular	/mẽ bəʃar ʃa rəhi rū/	‘I shall be going to the market’
1 st Person Plural	/həm bəʃar ʃa rəhi rã/	‘We will be going to the market’
2 nd Person Singular	/təm k ^{het} pe ʃa rəhi ro/	‘You (SG) will be going to the field’
2 nd Person Plural	/təmlog k ^{het} pe ʃa rəhi ro/	‘You (PL) will be going to the field’
3 rd Person Singular	/vo k ^{het} pe ʃa rəhi ra/	‘He will be going to the field’
3 rd Person Plural	/ve k ^{het} pe ʃa rəhi rẽ/	‘They will be going to the field’

a. Perfective Aspect

The perfective aspect is a grammatical aspect that describes an action, viewed as completed. It indicates that the action has been completed at specific point of time. Perfective aspect can be realized in all the three tenses in Mainpri. In Giharo, perfective aspect is realized in all the three tenses and the auxiliary verbs carry the tense markers in the perfective aspect.

• Present Perfective Aspect

The present perfective aspect is a grammatical aspect that expresses the completion of an action which is just finished or was finished at some point of time in the past but is still relevant or connected to the present moment.

Formation of Present Perfective Aspect

Person	Pronominal form	Verb + Aspect-png marker + Aux	
1SG	/mẽ/	/gəva+hũ/	‘I have gone’
1PL	/həm/	/gəva+hã/	‘We have gone’
2SG	/təm/	/gəve+ho/	‘You (SG) have gone’
2PL	/təmlog/	/gəve+ho/	‘You (PL) have gone’
3SG	/vo/	/gəva+ha/	‘He has gone’
3PL	/ve/	/gəve+hẽ/	‘They have gone’

Example:

Person	Sentences	
1 st Person Singular	/mẽ bəʃar gəva hũ/	‘I have gone to the market’
1 st Person Plural	/həm bəʃar gəva hã/	‘We have gone to the market’
2 nd Person Singular	/təm bəʃar gəve ho/	‘You (SG) have gone to the market’
2 nd Person Plural	/təmlog bəʃar gəve ho/	‘You (PL) have gone to the market’

3 rd Person Singular	/ʋo bəʃar gəva ha/	‘He has gone to the market’
3 rd Person Plural	/ʋe bəʃar gəve hẽ/	‘They have gone to the market’

- **Past Perfective Aspect**

The present perfective aspect is a grammatical aspect that describes an action that was already done or completed in the past.

Formation of Past Perfective Aspect

Person	Pronominal form	Verb + Aspect-png marker + Aux	
1SG	/mẽ/	/gəva+hũda+t ^h a/	‘I had gone’
1PL	/həm/	/gəva+hũda+t ^h ã/	‘We had gone’
2SG	/təm/	/gəva+hõdo+t ^h o/	‘You (SG) had gone’
2PL	/təmlog/	/gəva+hõdo+t ^h o/	‘You (PL) had gone’
3SG	/ʋo/	/gəva+hũda+t ^h a/	‘He had gone’
3PL	/ʋe/	/gəva+hũda+t ^h ẽ/	‘They had gone’

Example:

Person	Sentences	
1 st Person Singular	/mẽ bəʃar gəva hũda t ^h a/	‘I had gone to the market’
1 st Person Plural	/həm bəʃar gəva hũda t ^h ã/	‘We had gone to the market’
2 nd Person Singular	/təm bəʃar gəva hõdo t ^h o/	‘You (SG) had gone to the market’
2 nd Person Plural	/təmlog bəʃar gəva hõdo t ^h o/	‘You (PL) had gone to the market’
3 rd Person Singular	/ʋo bəʃar gəva hũda t ^h a/	‘He had gone to the market’
3 rd Person Plural	/ʋe bəʃar gəva hũda t ^h ẽ/	‘They had gone to the market’

- **Future Perfective Aspect**

The future perfective aspect is a grammatical aspect that describes an action that will be completed at some point in the future. It is used to indicate that an action will have been completed before a specific point or event in the future.

Formation of Future Perfective Aspect

Person	Pronominal form	Verb + Aspect-png marker + Aux	
1SG	/mẽ/	/gəva+hosũ/	‘I will have gone’
1PL	/həm/	/gəva+hosã/	‘We will have gone’
2SG	/təm/	/gəva+hose/	‘You (SG) will have gone’

2PL	/təmlɔg/	/gəva+ hose/	‘You (PL) will have gone’
3SG	/vo/	/gəva+hosa/	‘He will have gone’
3PL	/ve/	/gəva+hosẽ/	‘They will have gone’

Example:

Person	Sentences	
1 st Person Singular	/mẽ bəʃar gəva hosũ/	‘I will have gone to the market’
1 st Person Plural	/həm bəʃar gəva hosã/	‘We will have gone to the market’
2 nd Person Singular	/təm bəʃar gəva hose/	‘You (SG) will have gone to the market’
2 nd Person Plural	/təmlɔg bəʃar gəva hose/	‘You (PL) will have gone to the market’
3 rd Person Singular	/vo bəʃar gəva hosa/	‘He will have gone to the market’
3 rd Person Plural	/ve bəʃar gəva+hosẽ/	‘They will have gone to the market’

b. Habitual Aspect

Habitual aspect is a grammatical aspect that expresses an action or event as a repeated or customary occurrence. It indicates that the action or event being described is a habitual, customary, repeated action that occurs over an extended period of time.

• Present Habitual Aspect

The present habitual aspect is a grammatical aspect that is used to indicate actions or events that occur habitually or usually in the present time frame. In Giharo, habitual aspect is expressed by forming habitual participle which is constructed by adding the suffix /-duva/ to the verb root. The auxiliary verbs of the sentence carry the tense markers in the habitual aspect. Examples are as follows:

Example: /həm roʃ gəi dohduva hã/
 1PL everyday cow milk-HAB-be.PRS.1PL
 ‘We milk the cows everyday.’

/suʃa purəb disa ori ɔgduva ha/
 sun east direction.LOC rise-HAB-be.PRS.3SG
 ‘The sun rises in the east.’

• Past Habitual Aspect

The past habitual aspect is a grammatical aspect that is used to describe actions or events that were repeatedly or habitually performed in the past. It is used to convey a sense of customary or habitual behavior that occurred over a period of time. In Giharo, Past habitual is

formed by adding /-duva/ with the main verb and the auxiliary verbs of the sentence carry the tense markers in the habitual aspect.

Example: /mẽ noʊ bəʒe dəftər ʒaduva tʰu/
 1SG nine at office used to go be.PST.1SG
 'I used to go to office at 9 o'clock.'

/ʊo noʊ bəʒe dəftər ʒaduva tʰa /
 3SG.F nine at office used to go be.PST.3SG
 'He used to go to office at 9 o'clock.'

(iii) Mood

Mood refers to a grammatical category that expresses the speakers' attitude towards the state or action described by the verb. It indicates the relationship between the action or state and reality as perceived by the speaker. Different moods of Giharo are as follows:

- a. **Indicative Mood-** Indicative mood is used to state a fact, make a statement or to ask a question.

Example /surʒa purəb disa ori ʊgduva ha/ 'The Sun rises in the East'
 /təmro nam ka he/ 'What is your name?'

- b. **Imperative Mood-** Imperative mood is used to express commands or to give advice or instructions.

Example /dʰirese batiao/ 'Speak slowly'
 /mɛʒ pər kʰəɽo ho ʒao/ 'Stand on the table'

- c. **Subjunctive Mood-** Subjunctive mood is used to express hypothetical situations, doubts or wishes.

Example /əgər ɡʰoɽaka pəŋkʰ hūda to ʊo uɽ ʒada 'If horse had wings it would have flown'
 tʰa/
 /əgər mẽ ʊhã rəhũ to təmka səhara 'If I am there, you will have some
 milhe/ support.'

- d. **Conditional Mood-** Conditional mood is used to express a condition or hypothesis and its consequences.

Example /əgər ʊo ad rəhe to mẽ ʒasũ/ 'I shall go if he comes'
 /əgər mẽ tʰik rəhəsũ to kali asũ/ 'If I am well I will come tomorrow'

e. **Obligatory Mood:** Obligatory mood is used to express obligation or compulsion.

Example /kɪnɔɪ hɑl me tɔko ɔv cɑhɪ/ 'Anyhow you must come'
/mɔko ɪh̃ nɑi rəhəve cɑhɪ/ 'I must not remain here'

(B) Non-Finite Verb

Non-finite verbs are those verb forms that do not indicate tense, number or gender and do not function as the main verb of a sentence. Instead, they are often used to modify other parts of sentence or to express actions that are incomplete or ongoing. Types of non-finite verb forms of Giharo are as follows:

(i) Gerund

Gerund is a non-finite verb form that is derived from a verb and functions as a noun in a sentence. Gerund can function as a subject of as well as an object of a verb. In Giharo, Gerunds are formed by adding /-vi/ with the base form of the verb.

Example: /tɛrvi sehət ke lɪ ɛcʰo rəhɑ/ 'Swimming is good for health'
/gʰoɾase dɔɔrvi ho rəhi rəhe/ 'Running is done by the horse'

(ii) Infinitive

Infinitive is a type of non-finite verb that expresses an action or state of being without reference to a particular state of being without reference to a particular tense, mood or subject. In Giharo, infinitives are formed by adding the suffix /-ba/ to the base form of the verb.

Example: /cʰɛpri huvi kɪtɑb pɛɾba me ɑsɑn 'Printed books are easy to read'
hod hɑ/
/bəhɔt log ʒəldise ruɾəɑ bənaɪba 'Many men desire to make money quickly'
cɑhəd rəh̃/

iii) Participle

Participle is a type of non-finite verb form that is used to modify nouns or pronouns in a sentence. Participles can be formed from verbs by adding suffixes and can function as adjectives; that is why sometimes they are called 'verbal adjectives'. These verbal adjectives or participial adjectives are used to describe the action or state of being of a person or an object. In Giharo, participles are formed by adding the post position /huvi/ or /huva/ after the base form of the verb:

Example: /cʰɛpri huvi kɪtɑb pɛɾba me ɑsɑn 'Printed books are easy to read'
hod hɑ/

/ʋa ɡɪɾa huva pʰəlā ko ikaɾʰ kərvi tʰi/ ‘She collected the **fallen** fruits’

4.6. Adverb

Adverb is a wordclass or a part of speech that modifies or describes verbs, adjectives or other adverbs. Adverbs provide additional information about how, when or to what extent an action is performed or quality is expressed. Types of adverbs in Giharo are as follows:

(i) Adverb of Manner

Adverb of manner is a type of adverb that modifies or describes the manner or way in which an action or verb is performed. Adverbs of manner provide information about how an action is carried out or the way in which something happens.

Adverb	Example
/dʰirese/ ‘slowly’	/dʰirese batiao/ ‘Speak slowly ’
/ʃorose/ ‘loudly’	/ʃorose mət batiao/ ‘Don’t speak loudly ’

(ii) Adverb of Time

Adverb of time is a type of adverb that modifies or describes the time of an action or event. Adverbs of time provide information about when an action or event occurred or will occur.

Adverb	Example
/noʊ bəʃe/ ‘9 O’ clock’	/mẽ noʊ bəʃe dəftər ʃaduva tʰu/ ‘I used to go to office at 9 O’ clock’
/kəli/ ‘tomorrow’	/mẽ kali nai ahũ/ ‘I shall not come tomorrow’

(iii) Adverb of Place

Adverb of place is a type of adverb that modifies or describes the location or position of an action or event. Adverbs of place provide information about where an action is taking place or where something is located.

Adverb	Example
/ɔpər (se)/ ‘over’	/ɕɪɾja sər ke upəro se ɔɾi ɡəva tʰa/ ‘The bird flew over the head’
/nice/ ‘below’	/ʋo peɾ ke nice soɖ rəhe/ ‘He sleeps under the tree’

4.7. Negativization

Negativization is the process of expressing negation or the absence or opposite of something in a sentence. This can be achieved through the use of negative words, particles or affixes or by using specific sentence structures or grammatical constructions that indicate negation. The purpose of negativization is to convey a negative meaning or to deny the occurrences or existence of something. In Giharo also, negatives are formed by using negative words or particles that are added to the sentence; examples are as follows:

- By adding /nai/:

/ramɔ kali nai dhe/	‘Ramu will not come tomorrow’
/ʃo k ^h aibo lajək nai rəhe/	‘This is not edible’

- By adding /mæt/:

/ʃorose mæt batiao/	‘Do not speak loudly’
/age ke pas me mæt ʃao/	‘Do not go near the fire’

4.8. Passivization

Passivization is a grammatical process by which the subject of a sentence is made the patient or receiver of an action, while the agent or doer of the action is either omitted or introduced as a prepositional phrase or with a postpositon. The purpose is often to shift the focus of the sentence from the agent or doer of the action to the object or recipient of the action. In Giharo, passives are formed by adding /-se/ to the agent of the verb and the passive verbs are sometimes formed by combining a perfective form of the main verb with a form of /ʃaibo/ ‘to go’ that acts as the auxiliary. Examples are as follows:

Example: /ɔsse kɪtab pət ^h i ʃa rəhi rat/	‘The book was being read by him’
/ɔsse roʃi k ^h aj ʃad rəha/	‘The bread is eaten by him’

4.9. Causativization

Causativization is a grammatical process by which a verb is modified to indicate that the subject of the verb is causing or forcing or allowing another person or thing to perform an action. In other words, this is a linguistic operation that expresses the idea of making or causing someone or something to do something. The causative forms can be used in a wide range of situations such as describing the action of getting someone to do something or describing how something was caused to happen. It is also used to express politeness, especially in languages where it is considered impolite to give direct orders or commands.

Causatives can be formed in various ways depending on the language. In some languages it is formed syntactically by expressing the sense of causation through specific expressions such as, ‘make to do’ in English, as in ‘I have made him to do the work’ etc. On the other hand, there are some languages where causation is expressed morphologically as in Giharo where causatives are formed by adding suffix /-a/ or /-va/ with the base form of the verb.

In Giharo, verbs can be categorized into three related categories which express various relationship between the subject of the verb and verb itself; they are – intransitive, transitive and Causative. Intransitive verbs are those that do not take any direct object for example: the verb /ɔgibo/ ‘being grown’ in /əŋgur ɔgəd rəhē/ ‘grapes grow’ is an intransitive verb as the sentence is in quasi-passive voice here. In order to make it transitive suffix /-a/ is added to the base form of the verb, for example, /ɔgaɓbo/ ‘to grow’ in /həm əŋgur ɔgəd rəhū/ ‘We grow grapes’. In this process the verb becomes transitive as it takes /-əŋgur/ as its direct object here. Further, suffix /-va/ can be added in order to get the causative form i.e. /ɔgvaɓbo/ ‘to make someone to grow something’ in /mē ɔsse əŋgur ɔgvaɓ rəhū/.

However, not only the intransitive verbs, transitive verbs like - /kʰajbo/ ‘to eat’ also have their causative form. In this case, /-a/ is added to the base form of the verb to get the first causative form i.e. /kʰilaɓbo/ ‘to feed’ while /-va/ is added to get the second causative form i.e. /kʰilvaɓbo/ ‘to cause someone to feed’. Examples of causative formation in Giharo are as follows:

Intransitive		Transitive		Causative	
/ɔgibo/	‘to get grown’	/ɔgaɓbo/	‘to grow’	/ɔgvaɓbo/	‘to cause someone to grow something’
Transitive		1st Causative		2nd Causative	
/kʰajbo/	‘to eat’	/kʰilaɓbo/	‘to feed (someone)’	/kʰilvaɓbo/	‘to cause someone to feed (someone)’

5. SYNTAX

Syntax is a branch of linguistics that deals with the rules that govern the arrangement of words and phrases to create well-formed sentences in a language. It involves the study of how words are combined to form phrases, phrases are combined to form clauses and how clauses are combined to form sentences. Syntax also deals with the relationships between words and the structures that govern the formation of sentences, including word order, sentence structure, and grammatical categories and the rules of agreement between different parts of a sentence.

5.1. Word Order

Word order refers to the sequence in which words are arranged to form a sentence in a language. It involves the positioning of subject, verb, object and other syntactic elements in relation to each other to convey meaning. The word order of a sentence can vary across different languages and can have a significant impact on the meaning of a sentence. The word order of Giharo is of SOV pattern. Examples are as follows:

/mẽ	roʈi	kʰad	rəhũ/	‘I eat bread’
1SG	bread	eat-PRS.1SG	AUX	
S	O	V		
/təm	əpni	bəʈəriko	bəlao/	‘Call your daughter’
2SG	GEN	daughter	call.IMP	
S		O	V	

5.2. Types of Sentences

A sentence is a group of words that express a complete thought, idea or statement. It typically contains a subject (a person, thing or idea) and a predicate (what the subject is doing or what is being said about it). A sentence can be short or long but it must convey a complete sense, thought or idea that can stand alone structurally, sentences can be of three types – (i) Simple Sentence, (ii) Complex Sentence and (iii) Compound Sentence.

(i) Simple Sentence

A simple sentence is a sentence structure that consists of one independent clause which contains a subject and a predicate and can stand alone as a complete sentence. It expresses a single idea or thought and typically has a basic structure with a basic word order. Simple sentences are commonly used in everyday speech as they always express a complete thought with a subject and a verb. Example of Simple sentences of Giharo are as follows:

/mẽ ʋhã ʒad rəhũ/ 'I go there'
 1SG there go-PRS.1SG AUX

/mẽ gão me rəhəd rəhũ/ 'I live in the village'
 1PL village in-LOC live-PRS.1PL

(ii) Complex Sentence

A complex sentence is a sentence structure that contains one independent clause (a complete clause that can stand alone as a complete sentence) and at least one dependant clause (a clause that can not stand alone as a complete sentence). The dependant clause provides additional information about the independent clause and can not be used on its own.

[/təmre aɪba tək/] [/mẽ ihã rəhu hũ/]
 [2SG.GEN come.INF till] [1SG here stay FUT.1SG]
 dependant clause independent clause
 'I will stay here until you will come'

[/ʒo ʋohi admi he/] [ʒino-se mẽ kali mɪlu tʰu]
 [this the man be.PRS.3SG] [whom-with 1SG yesterday meet.PST AUX]
 independant clause dependent clause
 'This is the man whom I met yesterday'

(iii) Compound Sentence

A compound sentence is a sentence structure that contains two or more independent clauses (a complete clause that can stand alone) joined together by a conjunction. Each independent clause expresses a distinct idea or thought and the coordinating conjunct helps to link them together.

[/dɪn ma kam kəro/] [/əʋr/] [/ratɪ ma so/]
 [day in work do-IMP.] [and] [night at sleep-IMP]
 independant clause conjunct independent clause
 'Work in the day and sleep at night'

[/ram kɪʃno ko aɪba kʰatɪr bɔla tʰa] [/məgər/] [ʋska səməj nai tʰa]
 [2SG Krishna-ACC come.INF.for tell.PST] [but] [3SG time NEG be.PST]
 independant clause conjunct independent clause
 'Ram asked Krishna to come but Krishna to had no time'

5.3. Structure of Phrases

A phrase is a group of words that functions as a single unit in a sentence but does not contain both a subject and a verb. Phrase can be of various types, such as, Noun Phrase, Adjective Phrase, Adverb Phrase, Prepositional Phrase etc. Phrase structure of Giharo are as follows:

(i) Noun Phrase

A noun phrase is a group of words that function together as a single unit and includes a noun or pronoun as the head word or main word that gives the phrase its meaning along with other modifying words that modify it. Examples of Giharo are as follows:

/təmri do kɪtabē/

‘Two books of yours’

/səfed g^hoɾe/

‘The white horses’

(ii) Verb Phrase

A verb phrase is a group of words that includes the main verb and one or more auxiliary (helping) verbs, which together function as a single unit within a sentence. The main verb in a verb phrase typically expresses the action or state of being while the auxiliary verb provides additional information about the tense, aspect or mood of the main verb. Verb phrase can function as the predicate of a sentence and they can be used to express a variety of meanings, including action, occurrence, possession and more. Examples of Giharo are as follows:

/ʊo *ek kɪtab pəɾʰəd rəhe/*

‘He **reads a book**’

/surʒa *purəb dɪsa ori ɔgduva ha/*

‘The Sun **rises in the east**’

(iii) Postpositional Phrase

A postpositional phrase is a type of phrase in which a postposition (a word that comes after a noun or pronoun to indicate its relationship with another element in a sentence) functions as the head of the phrase. The postpositional phrase includes the postposition and any noun or pronoun that precedes it, as well as any modifiers that come before or after the postposition. Examples of Giharo are as follows:

/mɛɟ pər k^həɾo ho ʒao/

‘Stand **on the table**’

/mɛ̃ pɛɾ ke pas me rəhũ/

‘I am **near the tree**’

(iv) Adjective Phrase

An adjective phrase is a group of words that function together as a single unit and modify a noun or pronoun in a sentence. The head word of an adjective phrase is typically an adjective that describes the characteristics or qualities of noun, while any other words in the phrase provide additional information or clarification about the description. Examples of Giharo are as follows:

/c^hoʃe bæcce/

‘The small children’

/æcc^ho baʃaro /

‘The good boy’

(v) Advreb Phrase

An adverb phrase is a group of words that function together as a single unit and modify a verb, an adjective or another adverb in a sentence. The head word of an adverb phrase is typically an adverb that describes the manner, place, time, degree or frequency of the action or event being described while any other words in the phrase provide additional information or clarification about the adverb. Examples of Giharo are as follows:

/mẽ **noʃ bæʃe** dəftər ʃaduʋa t^hu/

‘I used to go to office **at 9 o’clock**’

/təm **noʃ bæʃe** dəftər ʃadve t^he/

‘You used to go to office **at 9 o’clock**’

5.4. Structure of Clauses

A clause is a grammatical unit that consists of a subject and a predicate. It can be a complete sentence on its own or a part of a larger sentence. A clause typically contains a verb and describes an action, occurrence or state of being. It may also include other elements such as objects, complements or modifiers. There are two main types of clauses: Independent clause and Dependent Clause.

Independent Clause- An Independent clause is a type of clause that can stand alone as a complete sentence. It has a subject and a predicate and expresses a complete thought or statement. Independent clauses are also called the main clauses because they can be used independently of other clauses.

Dependent Clause- A dependent clause is a type of clause that can not stand alone as a complete sentence. It has a subject and a predicate, but does not express a complete thought or statement. Instead, it relies on an independent clause to complete its meaning. Dependent clauses are also called subordinate clauses because they depend on other clauses.

In Giharo, the concept of Independent and Dependant clause can be relized as follows:

[/ʃo uohi admi he/]	[/ʃino-se mē kali mīlu tʰu/]
[this the man be.PRS.3SG]	[whom-with 1SG yesterday meet.PST AUX]
independant clause	dependent clause

‘This is the man whom I met yesterday’

In Giharo, subordinate sentences and can be further divided into different types based on their function in a sentence. These are as follows:

(i) Noun Clause

A dependent clause that functions as a noun in a sentence, is called a noun clause. In Giharo, a noun clause is generally formed using a subordinating conjunt /kɪ/ ‘that’ which makes it a dependent clause. Examples are as follows:

[ʃo kəho ʃad rəhe]	[kɪ ʃo admi bʰəroso ləjək he nai/]
[it say.PASS be]	[that this man trust worthy be NEG]
independant clause	dependent clause

‘It is said that this man is not trust-worthy’

(ii) Adverbial Clause

A dependent clause that functions as an adverb in a sentence, is called an adverbial clause. It provides information about when, where, why or how something happened in the independent clause. In Giharo, an adverbial clause is introduced by using a subordinating conjunctions such as, /ʃəbo/ ‘when’, /ʃəbo tək/ ‘until’, /ʃəhā/ ‘where’, /əgər/ ‘if’ etc. which makes it a dependent clause. Examples are as follows:

[/əgər gʰoɾaka pəŋkʰ hūda/]	[ʋo uɾ ʃada tʰa/]
[if horse-PL.GEN wing be.PST.3SG]	[3SG fly AUX.FUT.3PL.]
dependant clause	independent clause

‘If horses had wings they would have flown’

(iii) Relative/ Adjective Clause

A relative clause, also known as an adjective clause, is a type of dependent clause that modifies a noun or pronoun in the main clause. In Giharo, relative clause is introduced by using a subordinating conjunctions such as, /ʃo/ ‘who/which’, /ʃake/ or /ʃinose/ ‘whom’, /ʃinoka/ ‘whose’ etc. which makes it a dependent clause. Examples are as follows:

[/ʃo vohi admi he]	[ʃinose mē kali mɪla tʰũ/]
[this the man be.PRS.3SG]	[whom-with 1SG yesterday meet.PST AUX]
independant clause	dependent clause

‘This is the man whom I met yesterday’

(iv) Correlative Clause

A correlative clause is a type of subordinate clause that is linked to the main clause by correlative conjunctions in order to depict the relationship between the ideas expressed in the main clause and the dependant clause, emphasizing the relation or parallelism between them. In Giharo, Correlative clauses are introduced by pair of conjunctions such as, /ʃo...vo/ etc. Examples are as follows:

[/ʃo admi kali mər gəʋa]	[vo ek gəjək tʰa/]
[REL. man yesterday die be.PST]	[DEM a singer be.PST.3SG]

‘The man who died yesterday was a singer’

5.5. Patterns of Sentences

A sentence is a group of words that express a complete thought, idea or statement. It typically contains a subject (a person, thing or idea) and a predicate (what the subject is doing or what is being said about it). Semantically, sentences can be of main five types; they are –

- (i) Declarative Sentence
- (ii) Interrogative Sentence
- (iii) Imperative Sentence
- (iv) Exclamatory Sentence
- (v) Conditional Sentence

(i) Declarative Sentence

A declarative sentence is a type of sentence that makes a statement or assertion. It is used to convey information, express thoughts or ideas or to state a fact. A declarative sentence can either be affirmative or negative. An affirmative declarative sentence simply affirms something to be true while a negative declarative sentence denies something to be true. Examples from Giharo are as follows:

/surʃa purəb dɪsa ɔɾɪ ʋɡduʋa ha/	‘Sun rises in the east’
/mē roʃi kʰad rəhũ/	‘I eat bread’

(ii) **Interrogative Sentence**

An interrogative sentence is a type of sentence that asks a question. It is used to gather information or to seek clarification on a particular topic. Examples from Giharo are as follows:

/təmrə nam ka he/

‘What is your name?’

/tɔ̃m kəb ʊʔ^həd rəho/

‘When do you get up?’

(iii) Imperative Sentence

An imperative sentence is a type of sentence that gives a command, advice, request or instruction. It is used to direct someone, to do something or to provide guidance on how to perform a task etc. Examples from Giharo are as follows:

/mɛɹ pər k^həɹo ho ɹao/

‘Stand on the table.’

/d^hi:rese batiao/

‘Speak slowly.’

(iv) **Exclamatory Sentence**

An exclamatory sentence is a type of sentence that expresses strong emotions such as surprise, excitement, sorrow, or anger. It used to make an emphatic statement or to convey intense feelings about something. Examples from Giharo are as follows:

/təm kiːne læmbe ho goʊ ho!/
 /təˈm kɪˌne læmbə hɑː goʊ hɑː!/
 /təˈm kɪˌne læmbə hɑː goʊ hɑː!

‘How tall you have grown!’

/ʊ ə^{hi} b^{hi} t̪əvã lədəd he!/
 /ʊ ə^{hi} b^{hi} t̪əvã lədəd he!/

‘He seems still young!’

(v) Conditional Sentence

An optative sentence is a type of sentence that expresses a wish, hope, desire or prayer etc. It is often used to express a sense of longing or to express a desire for something to happen. Examples from Giharo are as follows:

/əqər pəlɪs əve to cor pəkɾa ʃahe/

'If the police comes then the thief will be caught'

/əgər ɡ^hoɾaka pəŋk^h hũda vo uɾ ʃada
t^ha/]

‘If horses had wings they would have flown’

5.6 Negativization

Negativization is the process of expressing negation or the absence or opposite of something in a sentence. This can be achieved through the use of negative words, particles or affixes or by using specific sentence structures or grammatical constructions that indicate negation. The purpose of negativization is to convey a negative meaning or to deny the

occurrences or existence of something. It involves transforming an affirmative sentence into a negative one.

Negativization in Giharo can be complex and may involve the use of multiple words and grammatical particles to convey the desired meaning. In Giharo also, negatives are formed by using negative words or particles that are added to the sentence; examples are as follows:

- **By adding /nai/:**

Assertive	-	/ramɔ̃ kali ahe/	‘Ramu will come tomorrow’
Negative	-	/ramɔ̃ kali nai ahe/	‘Ramu will not come tomorrow’

- **By adding /mət/:**

Assertive	-	/ʃorose batiao/	‘Speak loudly’
Negative	-	/ʃorose mət batiao/	‘Don’t speak loudly’

5.7 Passivization:

Passivization is a grammatical process by which the subject of a sentence is made the patient or receiver of an action, while the agent or doer of the action is either omitted or introduced as a prepositional phrase or with a postposition. The purpose is often to shift the focus of the sentence from the agent or doer of the action to the object or recipient of the action. It is a common way of emphasizing the importance of the action rather than the agent performing it. Generally, in Passivization the subject of the active sentence becomes the agent of the passive sentence, and is marked by a preposition or postposition while, the object of the active sentence becomes the subject of the passive sentence and receives the action of the verb that changes its form to agree with the new subject of the sentence.

In Giharo, passives are formed by adding /-se/ to the agent of the verb and the passive verbs are sometimes formed by combining a perfective form of the main verb with a form of /ʒana/ ‘to go’ that acts as the auxiliary. Examples are as follows:

/qʰoɽa dəoɽ rəhi rəhe/	‘Horse runs’
/qʰoɽase dəoɽvi ho rəhi rəhe/	‘Running is done by the horse’
/ʋo roɽi kʰad rəha/	‘He eats bread’
/ʋsse roɽi kʰaj jad rəha/	‘Bread is eaten by him’

5.8 Causativization:

Causativization is a grammatical process by which a verb is modified to indicate that the subject of the verb is causing or forcing or allowing another person or thing to perform an action. In other words, this is a linguistic operation that expresses the idea of making or causing

someone or something to do something. The causatives form can be used in a wide range of situations such as describing the action of getting someone to do something or describing how something was caused to happen. It is also used to express politeness, especially in languages where it is considered impolite to give direct orders or commands.

Causatives can be formed in various ways depending on the language. In some languages it is formed syntactically by expressing the sense of causation through specific expressions such as, ‘make to do’ in English, as in ‘I have made him to do the work’ etc. On the other hand, there are some languages/ mother tongues where causation is expressed morphologically as in Giharo where causatives are formed by adding suffix /-a/ or /-va/ with the base form of the verb. This has been discussed in detail in section 4.9. However, when the causatives are expressed in sentences the recipient of a transitive verb is often (not always) marked with /-ko/ and where the agent of the second causative verb is mentioned, then it is followed by the postposition /-se/. Examples from Giharo are as follows:

Causation in Intransitive Verb

Intransitive	/ɔgɪbo/	‘to get grown’	-	/əŋɡur ɔɡəd rəhě/	‘Grapes grow’
Transitive	/ɔɡajbo/	‘to grow’	-	/həm əŋɡur ɔɡəd rəhũ/	‘We grow grapes’
Causative	/ɔɡvəjbo/	‘to cause someone to grow something’	-	/mẽ ɔsse əŋɡur ɔɡvad rəhũ /	‘I make him to grow grapes’

Causation in Transitive Verb:

Transitive	/kʰaɪbo/	‘to eat’	-	/baɽaro kʰana kʰad rəhe/	‘Baby eats food’
1st Causative	/kʰɪlaɪbo/	‘to feed (someone)’	-	/mẽ baɽaro ko kʰana kʰɪlad rəhũ/	‘I feed the baby’
2nd Causative	/kʰɪlvəɪbo/	‘to cause someone to feed (someone)’	-	/mẽ nərsse baɽaro ko kʰana kʰɪlvad rəhũ/	‘I make the nurse to feed the baby’

6. CONCLUSION

In the forgone discussion a detailed grammatical structure of Giharo has been presented with illustrations based on the collected data from field. Its Phonological features resonates very much with that of Hindi language. Morphologically, Giharo is an inflexional type of language that means, here words are formed by adding syllables or letters (i. e. affixes) or different postpositions to the stem and different endings are used to form different types of words. According to the presentation, Giharo shares the features of Indo-Aryan language family. In all aspects like phonology, morphology and syntax it shows a great affinity with Hindi.

Some peculiarities are also there that distinguishes Giharo from other mother tongues grouped under Hindi; these are –

a. the /l/ sound of Hindi has often become /ɾ/ in Giharo, such as, /bal/ ‘plough’ becomes /bar/, /balu/ ‘sand’ becomes /baru/, /ʃal/ ‘net’ becomes /ʃar/ in Giharo.

b. Verb forms in Giharo may slightly differ from the standard Hindi due to difference in the suffixes added to the verb roots/stems. For example, /mẽ bəʒar ɡejat^ha/ ‘I went to the market’ becomes /mẽ bəʒar ɡəʋʌ t^hu/; /ʋe cɪɽa dekhenge/ ‘They will the bird’ becomes /ʋe cɪɽa dek^hẽ/ in Giharo.

These unique features distinguishes Giharo from other mother tongues or variations of standard Hindi, however, in terms of grammar and basic vocabulary, Giharo and Hindi are quite similar. They share a common linguistic foundation and speakers of one can easily understand and communicate with speakers of the other. So, it can be said to conclude that Giharo is an Indo-Aryan language, spoken around the Awadh region of Uttar Pradesh and it is fairly close to the Hindi language.

7. TEXT

Two friends and a Bear

/do dost ær ek b^halu/

/ramu ær sam dono dost at^he/

‘Ramu and Shyam were two friends.’

/be dono ek dōsrese bada kærve t^he ke be hær ek k^hatrāma ek dōsreko sat^h nīb^hāibo/

‘They (two) promised each other that they would remain united in case of any danger.’

/ek dīn ve j̄əŋgəl ma gəve/

‘One day they were walking through a forest.’

/samnese ek b^halu av/

‘A bear came on their way.’

/b^haluko dek^h dono bəh̄ət d̄ər gəvo t^ho/

‘Having seen the bear both the friends became terrified’

/ramu d̄ərke mare peṛ p̄ər c̄əṛ gəva/

‘Ramu climbed a tree in fear.’

/samko peṛ per c̄əṛ^hība nai avto/

‘Shyam did not know how to climb a tree.’

/vo əpne dost ramuse bolo, ‘moj peṛ per c̄əṛ^hība nai ato he, meri mādət kəro’

‘He told his friend Ramu, ‘I do not know how to climb a tree, please help me’.’

/ramune kəc^h̄s nai kəha/

‘But Ramu did not respond.’

/d̄əḱ^hī hoj sam sās rok̄k̄ər j̄əmin per leṛ gəva/

‘In fear and grief, Shyam lay down on the ground breathless.’

/j̄əldihi b^halu a gavo/

‘The bear came there very soon.’

/j̄əmin p̄ər samko dek^h ṽske pas gəvo ær suṇən ləgo/

‘Seeing Shyam, lying on the ground, It went to him and started to smell him.’

/kəc^hu der suṇənke bad ju samko c^hor c̄əlo gəvo/

‘It smelt for some time and went away leaving shyam there.’

/ramune socva samke kan ma b^halune kəc^h̄s kə^hī rəhe/

‘Ramu thought that the bear had said something to Shyam.’

/ramu ʃəldise nice əv ær samse pucʰo, 'mere dost bʰalune tere kan ma ka kəho'/

Ramu came down and asked his friend Shyam, "Friend, what did the bear tell you into your ears?"

/samu bolo, "bʰalune kəhi ke o svartʰi admi pe bʰərosa mət kəro ʃo tume musibət ma əkelo cʰor cəlo gəvo/

'Shyam replied, 'The bear advised me not to trust a friend who leaves you in times of trouble'.'

/itto kəhəke sam vəhã se əkelo cəlo gəvo/

Saying this Shyam walked away alone.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Gurmukhi is basically a standardized Brahmanic Script used by Second Guru of Sikh, Guru Angad. It is used by Sikhs as one of the Scripts to write the Punjabi language. The Primary scripture of Sikhs, Guru Granth Sahib is written in Gurmukhi script.

1.1 Family affiliation

There are two major theories on how the *Proto-Gurmukhī script* emerged in the 15th century. G.B. Singh (1950), says that the script evolved from Ardhanagari. Al-Biruni writes that the Ardhanagari script was used in Bathinda and western parts of the Punjab in the 10th century. For some time, Bathinda remained the capital of the kingdom of Bhati Rajputs of the Pal clan, who ruled North India before the Muslims occupied the country. According to Al-Biruni, Ardhanagari was a mixture of Devanagari used in Ujjain and Malwa and *Siddha Matrika* or the last stage of Siddham script, a variant of the Śāradā script used in Kashmir. This theory is confusing as Gurmukhī characters have a very close resemblance with "Siddh Matrika" inscriptions found at some sacred wells in Punjab as G.B Singh notes, one being the hathur inscription dating to just before the birth of Guru Nanak. Siddh Matrika seems to have been the prevalent script for devotional writings in Punjab right up to the founding of Sikhism, after which its successor Gurmukhī appears.

Pritam Singh (1992) has also traced the origins of Gurmukhī to the *Siddha Matrika*. "Siddha Matrika" along with its sister Takri alphabet has its origins in the Śāradā script of Kashmir.

Tarlochan Singh Bedi (1999) writes that the Gurmukhī script developed in the 10-14th centuries from the *Devasesha* stage of the Śāradā script, the intermediate phase being Siddha Matrika, before the final evolution into Gurmukhī. His argument is that from the 10th century, regional differences started to appear between the Śāradā script used in Punjab, the Hill States (partly Himachal Pradesh) and Kashmir. The regional Śāradā script evolved from this stage until the 14th century, when it starts to appear in the form of Gurmukhī. Indian epigraphists call this stage *Devasesha*, while Bedi prefers the name *Pritham Gurmukhī* or Proto-Gurmukhī.

The Sikh gurus adopted proto-Gurmukhī to write the Guru Granth Sahib, the religious scriptures of the Sikhs. Other contemporary scripts used in the Punjab were Takri and the Laṇḍā scripts. The Takri alphabet developed through the *Devasesha* stage of the Śāradā script and is found mainly in the Hill States such as Chamba, Himachal Pradesh, where it is called *Chambyali*, and in Jammu Division, where it is known as *Dogri*. The local Takri variants got the status of official scripts in some of the Punjab Hill States, and were used for both administrative and literary purposes until the 19th century. After 1948, when Himachal Pradesh was established as an administrative unit, the local *Takri* variants were replaced by Devanagari.

Meanwhile, the mercantile scripts of Punjab known as the *Laṇḍā* scripts were normally not used for literary purposes. *Landa* means alphabet "without tail", implying that the script did not have vowel symbols. In Punjab, there were at least ten different scripts classified as *Laṇḍā*, *Mahajani* being the most popular. The *Laṇḍā* scripts were used for household and trade purposes. Compared to the *Laṇḍā*, Sikh Gurus favoured the use of *Proto-Gurmukhī*, because of the difficulties involved in pronouncing words without vowel signs.

The usage of Gurmukhi letters in *Guru Granth Sahib* meant that the script developed its own orthographical rules. In the following epochs, *Gurmukhī* became the prime script applied for literary writings of the Sikhs. Later in the 20th century, the script was given the authority as the official script of the Punjab, India while in the Punjab, Pakistan the Persianate *Shahmukhi* alphabet is still in use.

1.2 Location

Gurmukhi is reported to be spoken in the western part of Uttar Pradesh in India. The large-scale migration of people from west part of the erstwhile Punjab at the time of partition, a lot of them settled in the Delhi and now what is being called as NCR region.

1.3 Speaker strength: language-mother tongue-bilingualism

Gurmukhi speakers are found in good numbers in the western part of Uttar Pradesh in India. According to Census 2001, there are 10,460 Gurmukhi speakers in Uttar Pradesh and their speaker strength at India level is 35,545.

Gurmukhi speaking population being in close proximity to people speaking Hindi, they also speak Hindi as their second language.

1.4 Socio-linguistic information

Gurmukhi is reported to be spoken in the western part of Uttar Pradesh in India. The mother tongue Gurmukhi is spoken by adequate number of the population. The use of this language is not limited to homes and peer groups. Gurmukhi is also used in formal communication such as medium of instruction or teaching in schools, public places, markets, administration, judiciary, news or print media etc. Gurmukhi has a very rich tradition of written literature. There is an abundance of oral literature and folklore in this language.

1.5 Present study

The data for Gurmukhi was collected under the Mother Tongue Survey of India conducted by Language Division, Office of the Registrar General, India in collaboration with Directorate of Census Operation, Office of the Registrar General, India of the respective states. The data was collected based on settlement type, gender and age of the informant. Thus, every mother tongue had either four or eight samples. The data from every sample was then transcribed and a sketch of the mother tongue prepared by linguistic resource person (LRPs) engaged for the purpose from different state and central universities spread across India. These

sketches were then consolidated by professors in linguistics or linguists from Language Division.

The mother tongue data for Gurmukhi was collected from Hari Nagar, Balia, Khiri district of Uttar Pradesh. The informants were Shri Jogindar Singh, Shri Ranjeet Singh, Smt. Kuldeep Kaur, and Smt. Manjeet Kaur. The data elicitors were Shri Nagesh Pathak, Shri Yogesh Kumar, Shri Nigam Chand Dubey, and Shri Shailesh Kumar from Directorate of Census Operation, Uttar Pradesh. The transcription and analysis of the samples were done by Smt. Pritha Banerjee, Shri Deepak Kumar of Language Division, Shri Sabba Mushtaq of the University of Kashmir, and Smt. Thangjam Anne Devi of the Manipur University. The consolidation of the analyses was done by Shri P. Edward Vedamanickam of the Language Division. Another field visit was undertaken by me to collect more data for the present study.

2. PHONETICS AND PHONOLOGY

Phonetics is the study of sounds in any natural language and Phonology is the study of how such sounds are organized and used in natural languages. The phonological system of a language includes an inventory of sounds and their features and rules which specify how sounds interact with each other. Phonemic analysis helps in allotting all the indefinite number of sounds occurring in utterances to a definite and limited set of phonemes contrastive in at least some environment.

2.1 Phonemic inventory (Segmental)

Phonetic Inventory is the distribution of both segmental (consonant and vowel phonemes) and supra-segmental of a language.

2.1.1 Vowels

Segmental Vowel Phonemes: The segmental vowels in this language are presented below. Gurmukhi has 10 vowel phonemes including the short vowel phonemes and their longer counterpart.

	Front	Central	Back
High	ɪ		u
High mid	i		ʊ
Mid	e	ə	o
Low	ɛ	a	ɑ

Vowel Chart

2.1.2 Consonants

Segmental Consonant Phonemes:

	Bilabial		Labio-dental	Dental		Retroflex		Palatal		Velar		Glottal
	VL	VD	VD	VL	VD	VL	VD	VL	VD	VL	VD	VL
Unaspirated	p	b		t	d	ʈ	ɖ	c	ɟ	k	g	
Aspirated	p ^h	b ^h		t ^h	d ^h	ʈ ^h		c ^h		k ^h	g ^h	
Nasal		m			n		ɳ				ŋ	
Implosive												
Fricative				s			ʃ					h
Trill					r							
Flap							ɽ					

Lateral					l							
Approximant			ʊ						y			

Consonant Chart

2.2 Phonemic Contrasts

Contrasts in Vowel

/a/ ~ /ɪ/	/patija/	‘brother’s son’ :	/patiji/	‘brother’s daughter’
/o/ ~ /ɑ/	/panno/	‘paper’ :	/panna/	‘emerald’

Contrasts in Consonant

/t/ ~ /t̪/	/tal/	‘floor’ :	/t̪al/	‘slope’
/c/ ~ /cʰ/	/ca/	‘coconut scraper’ :	/cʰa/	‘shade’
/k/ ~ /kʰ/	/kan/	‘ear’ :	/kʰan/	‘mine’

2.3 Consonant Clusters

A few examples of consonant clusters in Gurmukhi are as follows-

/nd̪/	/t̪ʰənd̪/	‘cold’
/tr̪/	/istr̪/	‘female’
/pr̪/	/pron̪ɑ/	‘husband’
/br̪/	/brənd̪ɑ/	‘verandah’
/gr̪/	/grehan/	‘planet’
/rd̪/	/dərd̪/	‘pain’
/dr̪/	/ʃindra/	‘lock’
/kʰl̪/	/sidekʰlona/	‘to warn’

Consonant Gemination

/-kk-/	/makki/	‘maize’
/-ll-/	/balla/	‘bat’
/-nn-/	/panno/	‘paper’
/-mm-/	/himməti/	‘courage’
/-ss-/	/gussa/	‘anger’
/-tt-/	/satta/	‘week’

2.4 Distribution of Vowel Phonemes

Distribution of the vowel phonemes is presented in the table below.

Vowel	Initial	Medial	Final
/ɪ/		/kɪɽɑ/ ‘insect’	/duvani/ ‘echo’
/i/	/istrɪ/ ‘female’	/hiran/ ‘deer’	/mitʃi/ ‘clay’
/e/	/e/ ‘this’	/registan/ ‘desert’	/pronɛ/ ‘guests’
/ə/		/tʰənd/ ‘cold’	
/a/	/andkar/ ‘darkness’	/rassi/ ‘rope’	/potra/ ‘grand son’
/ɑ/	/aqɪ/ ‘fire’	/tap/ ‘heat’	/suva/ ‘ash’
/o/	/orati/ ‘woman’	/mosəm/ ‘weather’	/kiyo/ ‘ghee’
/ɔ/	/ɔtʰ/ ‘camel’	/kʰɔn/ ‘blood’	/jɔ/ ‘louse’
/u/	/upcarkər/ ‘nurse’	/mutʰi/ ‘fist’	/atʰru/ ‘tears’
/ɛ/	/ɛɽɪ/ ‘brick’	/cɛcakɪ/ ‘small pox’	

Distribution of consonant phonemes is given in the table below.

Consonant	Initial	Medial	Final
/p/	/pacal/ ‘earthquake’	/bacpan/ ‘childhood’	/tap/ ‘heat’
/pʰ/	/pʰɔlgobe/ ‘cauliflower’	/pʰɛpʰɽɑ/ ‘lungs’	/taripʰ/ ‘praise’
/b/	/baɽ/ ‘flood’	/kabɔtər/ ‘pigeon’	/seb/ ‘apple’
/bʰ/	/bʰɔtɑ/ ‘low tide’	/abʰiney/ ‘acting’	/ɛje sabʰ/ ‘these’
/t/	/tũndɪ/ ‘dew’	/prakati/ ‘nature’	/davət/ ‘inkpot’
/tʰ/	/tʰokɪ/ ‘saliva’	/hatʰyarɪ/ ‘weapon’	/suvatʰ/ ‘health’
/ɽ/	/ɽəɽɪ/ ‘stomach’	/kʰatɑpan/ ‘acidity’	/koɽ/ ‘coat’
/tʰ/	/tʰara/ ‘eighteen’	/aŋɡutʰi/ ‘ring’	/ɔtʰ/ ‘camel’
/k/	/kutta/ ‘dog’	/andkar/ ‘darkness’	/nak/ ‘nose’
/kʰ/	/kʰaŋɡɪ/ ‘cough’	/bukʰar/ ‘fever’	/sukʰ/ ‘happiness’
/d/	/duvani/ ‘echo’	/tũndɪ/ ‘dew’	/damad/ ‘son-in-law’
/dʰ/	/dʰərtɪ/ ‘world’	/indʰan/ ‘fuel’	
/ɽ/	/ɽoɽiya/ ‘groundnut’	/kundɑ/ ‘mortar’	/pɪɽ/ ‘wooden seat’
/g/	/ga/ ‘cow’	/baɽɽɑ/ ‘garden’	/rog/ ‘disease’
/gʰ/	/gʰatʰ/ ‘valley’	/gʰerna/ ‘seige’	
/c/	/cil/ ‘lake’	/bacpan/ ‘childhood’	/‘cōc/ ‘beak’
/cʰ/	/cʰoɽɑ/ ‘dwarf’	/vacʰɑ/ ‘calf’	
/s/	/saɽɪ/ ‘sari’	/mosəm/ ‘weather’	/sas/ ‘breath’

/ʃ/	/ʃɑʃɪ/ ‘mother-in-law’	/kəʃuʋɑ/ ‘tortoise’	/akɑʃ/ ‘sky’
/h/	/hauɑ/ ‘air’	/lehar/ ‘wave’	/mɔh/ ‘mouth’
/m/	/maspesi/ ‘muscle’	/camɖɑ/ ‘skin’	/mosəm/ ‘weather’
/n/	/natin/ ‘daughter’s daughter’	/gāndɪ/ ‘mud’	/grehan/ ‘planet’
/ŋ/	/ŋoŋɑ/ ‘to bathe’	/pronɑ/ ‘husband’	/lɔŋ/ ‘salt’
/ɲ/		/uŋgli/ ‘finger’	/ʃɪŋ/ ‘horn’
/l/	/lalɑtʰ/ ‘forehead’	/paɣalpani/ ‘insanity’	/yal/ ‘hair’
/r/	/registan/ ‘desert’	/prakati/ ‘nature’	/āŋɣar/ ‘ember’
/t/		/jōɽɑ/ ‘twin’	/bēɽ/ ‘sheep’
/v/	/val/ ‘hair’	/cuʋɑ/ ‘rat’	/batāʋ/ ‘brinjal’
/y/	/yodɪ/ ‘war’	/ɖoɖɪyɑ/ ‘groundnut’	/nirnay/ ‘judgement’
/j/	/jurmana/ ‘penalty’	/hajari/ ‘thousand’	/upʋɑj/ ‘fast’

2.6 Diphthong

It refers to a vowel where there is a single noticeable change in quality during a syllable. The diphthongs in this language are presented below.

Diphthongs	Initial	Medial	Final
au		/pərauna/ ‘bridegroom’	
ui			/sui/ ‘needle’
ai		/paija/ ‘sister’husband’	
au	/auɽe/ ‘gooseberry’	/wauti/ ‘bride’	
oi		/rəsoikər/ ‘kitchen’	
ia		/nikəŋjana/ ‘child’	/dunia/ ‘world’
ua			/ʋəɖikua/ ‘father’s sister’

2.5 Syllabification

2.5.1 Syllable structure

A syllable is a unit of organization for a sequence of speech sounds. It is a unit of spoken languages consisting of a single uninterrupted sound formed by a vowel, diphthong or syllabic consonant alone or any of these sounds preceded followed or surrounded by one or more consonants.

The following syllable patterns are present in Gurmukhi.

- i. Monosyllabic Pattern
- ii. Disyllabic Pattern

- iii. Trisyllabic Pattern
- iv. Polysyllabic Pattern

i. Monosyllabic Pattern

CV	/c ^h ɑ/	‘shade’
VC	/ɑgɪ/	‘fire’
CVC	/tɑl/	‘slope’
CCVC	/prɛm/	‘affection’

ii. Disyllabic Pattern

CV-CV	/nɪ-lɑ/	‘blue’
V-CVC	/ɑ-dɑt/	‘habit’
CVC-CV	/pɑt-lɑ/	‘lean’
CV-CVC	/sə-ɖɑk/	‘road’
CVC-CVC	/mən-jʊr/	‘labourer’

iii. Trisyllabic Pattern

CV-CVC-CVC	/re.ɡɪs.tɑn/	‘desert’
CV-CVC-CV	/bu.kəm.pə/	‘earthquake’
CV-CV-CV	/ki.kə.ɹə/	‘mud’
CVC-CCV-CV	/cən.drə.mɑ/	‘moon’
CV-CVV-CV	/pə.rau.nɑ/	‘bridegroom’
CV-CV-CCV	/wə.dɑ.bra/	‘brother’
CV-CVV-CV	/sə.nia.ra/	‘goldsmith’

iv. Polysyllabic Pattern

CVC-CVC-CV	/cən--dər--mɑ/	‘moon’
CV-CVC-CVC	/re--ɡɪs--tɑn/	‘desert’
CVC-CV-CV	/rɒk--ni--yɑ/	‘cashier’
CV-CV-CV	/bð--ni--yɑ/	‘grocer’

2.6 Suprasegmental features

2.6.1 Nasalisation

Nasalisation is a way of pronouncing sounds characterized by resonance produced through the nose in course of which the velum is lowered, so that some air escapes through the

nose during the production of the sound by the mouth. In Gurmukhi nasalization occurs with or without the influence of nasal consonants.

Nasalisation in Gurmukhi occurs mainly with the influence of nasal vowel. The nasalized vowels are ò, ā, ĩ, ũ, ē and their longer counterparts.

Some of these occurrences of nasalized vowels are shown below:

/õ/	/jõɾɑ/	‘twin’
/ĩ/	/ʃĩŋ/	‘horn’
/ẽ/	/dẽhi/	‘curd’
/ã/	/tãndur/	‘oven’
/ũ/	/b ^h ũpɪ/	‘steam’
/ũ/	/ʃũndɪ/	‘dry ginger’
/ɔ̃/	/mẽɳɑ/	‘coral’
/ẽ/	/kəlēc/	‘college’

3. MORPHOLOGY

3.1 Word Formation Process

Gurmukhi is an inflectional language. Words are formed using affixes. Word formation is the process of forming new words. The words in Gurmukhi are formed by a single morpheme or more than one free morpheme or a combination of free and bound morpheme.

3.1.1 Affixation

A large number of words in Gurmukhi are derived from other existing words by using prefixes and suffixes. Through affixation one can derive nouns from nouns, adjectives from nouns and nouns from verbs and so on. The following word will exemplify affixation as a word formation process.

Through Suffixation:

/cəŋi/	‘good’	+	[-yai]	=	/cəŋyai/	‘goodness’
/gyan/	‘wisdom’	+	[-i]	=	/gyani/	‘wise’

Through Prefixation:

[nir-]	+	/doʃ/	‘fault’	=	/nirdoʃ/	‘innocent’
[an-]	+	/pəṭʰ/	‘read’	=	/anpəṭʰ/	‘illiterate’

3.1.2 Reduplication

Reduplication is a morphological process in which a root or stem or part of it is repeated to create a new lexical item. It may be partial reduplication or full reduplication. The following word will exemplify reduplication as a word formation process in Gurmukhi. Examples from Gurmukhi are given below:

/kəbʰi/	+	/kəbʰi/	=	kəbʰi ~ kəbʰi	‘sometimes’
/gʰəṛ/	+	/gʰəṛ/	=	gʰəṛ ~ gʰəṛ	‘every house’

3.1.3 Compounding

Compounding is a process of word formation in which person attaches two or more words together to make them one word. The following word will exemplify compounding as a word formation process in Gurmukhi.

Noun + Noun = Derived Noun

/mom/	‘wax’	+	/bætti/	‘thread’	=	/mombætti/	‘candle’
/hat ^h /	‘hand’	+	/kəʃi/	‘balk’	=	/hət ^h əkəʃi/	‘handcuff’

3.2 Word Class

3.2.1 Noun

A part of speech, inflected for case, denoting a tangible or intangible entity, referring to objects in the non-linguistic world or to concepts which are considered as forming entities parallel to real-world entities. Examples are as follows:

/rak ^h /	‘ash’
/bæcca/	‘baby’
/ciʃya/	‘bird’
/bək ^h ar/	‘fever’
/ram/	‘Ram’

3.2.2 Pronoun

A grammatical component referring to a noun formerly mentioned and thus serving a deictic or anaphoric function. Examples are given below:

/mẽ/	‘I’
/ve/	‘she’
/tusi/	‘you’
/tusi log/	‘we’

3.2.3 Adjective

A grammatical constituent, the main syntactic role of which is to qualify a noun or noun phrase, providing additional information concerning the subject or object signified. Examples are:

/dayalu/	‘kind’
/sacca/	‘honest’

3.2.4 Postposition

Postposition is the part of speech that shows the relation of the noun or pronoun to some other word in a sentence. Examples are:

/inna de alava/	‘with’
/iŋgo/	‘in’

3.2.5 Verb

A part of speech without case inflection, but inflected for tense, person and number, signifying an activity or process, whether ongoing, completed or undergone. The main action of the verb is expressed in the first part. Examples are:

/malavna/	‘to mix’
/pana/	‘to pour’
/cilna/	‘to peel’

3.2.6 Adverb

A part of speech with or without inflection that is a modifier of a verb. Examples are:

/holi/	‘slowly’,
/c ^h eti karni/	‘fast/quickly’

3.2.7 Conjunction

Conjunctions are an uninflected linguistic form that joins together sentences, clauses, phrases, or words. The examples are:

/ani/	‘and’
/kintə/	‘but’

3.3 Noun Morphology

Noun morphology deals with the forms and classification of nouns, pronouns and their declensional/ inflectional pattern in association with person, number, gender, and adjective etc. The nouns in the language are generally marked by two numbers (singular and plural) and two genders (i.e. masculine, feminine); and case forms (nominative, accusative, dative, ablative, genitive, locative and instrumental).

3.3.1 Nouns

The Noun is a word class which takes number, gender and case markers. The noun functions as a subject or an object in a construction and it denotes number, person, place, thing etc.

3.3.1.1 Proper Noun

Example:

/sukrə gərəh/	‘venus’
/suryə/	‘sun’
/cəndərma/	‘moon’

3.3.1.2 Common Noun

Example:

/nədi/	‘river’
/gərəh/	‘planet’
/bəcca/	‘child’

3.3.1.3 Mass Noun

Example:

/koyla/	‘coal’
/cini/	‘sugar’
/nəmək/	‘salt’

3.3.1.4 Count Noun

Example:

/t ^h ali/	‘plate’
/kursi/	‘chair’
/caku/	‘knife’

3.3.1.5 Collective Noun

Example:

/sərkār/	‘government’
/pulis/	‘police’
/ɔp ^h is/	‘office’

3.3.1.6 Concrete Noun

Example:

/t ^h ali/	‘plate’
/caku/	‘knife’

3.3.1.7 Abstract Noun

Example:

/duk ^h /	‘grief’
/jələn/	‘jealous’
/prem/	‘affection’

3.3.2 Gender

Gender which refers to a grammatical category is a language specific characteristic. Gender which is either masculine or feminine is not always morphologically marked in Gurmukhi. In most of the cases gender is marked lexically. However, it is also derived by

suffixation, suppletion or phonological change in Gurmukhi. In Gurmukhi, gender marking is realized as follows:

It can be identified by two separate words as in the example below:

Masculine		Feminine	
/piyo/	‘father’	/mã/	‘mother’
/admɪ/	‘male’	/istri/	‘female’
/mũndqɑ/	‘boy’	/kuɖɪ/	‘girl’
/prarona/	‘bridegroom’	/ʋoɽɪ/	‘bride’

In Gurmukhi, the gender features are marked on an individual lexical item as follows:

Masculine		Feminine	
/pita/	‘father’	/mã/	‘mother’
/pɔrɔʃ/	‘male’	/istri/	‘female’
/bɛl/	‘bull’	/gae/	‘cow’

In Gurmukhi, the gender features are marked through suffixation as follows:

Masculine		Feminine	
/je:ɽʰ/	‘husband’s brother’	/jeɽʰani/	‘husband’s brother’ wife
/səmdʰi/	‘son-in-law’s father’	/səmdʰən/	‘son-in-law’s mother’

Gender marking may be done through vowel modification in Gurmukhi as follow:

Masculine		Feminine	
/sala/	‘wife’s brother’	/sali/	‘wife’s siter’
/ləɽka/	‘boy’	/ləɽki/	‘girl’
/gʰoɽɑ/	‘horse’	/gʰoɽi/	‘mare’
/patija/	‘brother’s son’	/patiji/	‘brother’s daughter’

3.3.3 Number

Number which refers to a grammatical category marked morphologically at the noun or noun phrases. Number can be either singular or plural. From the provided data it can be seen that there are two numbers in Gurmukhi language: singular and plural. The singular number is unmarked.

Singular		Plural	
/kəɽ/	‘house’	/kəro/	‘houses’
mõndɑ	‘son’	/mõndɛ/	‘sons’
koɖɑ	‘horse’	/koɖɛ/	‘horses’
/ləɽka/	‘boy’	/ləɽkõ/	‘boys’
/bæcca/	‘child’	/bæcce/	‘children’
/gʰoɽɑ/	‘horse’	/gʰoɽɛ/	‘horses’
/kəhani/	‘story’	/kəhaniyã/	‘stories’

/ləɾki/	‘girl’	/ləɾkiɾyã/	‘girls’
/kɪtab/	‘book’	/kɪtabẽ/	‘books’

3.3.4 Person

Person is categorised into three i.e. first, second, and third. They have different morphological realization and they are realized differently in terms of syntactic agreement markings on the verb. Such markings are overt in agreement as in the following examples:

mẽ	ciɖi	dek ^h di	ha
I.SG	bird	see.1.F.SG	Aux

‘I see the bird.’

tusi	ciɖya	vek ^h ya	han
you.SG	bird	see.2.SG	Aux

‘You saw the bird.’

veh	ciɖya	vek ^h oge
3PL	bird	see.3PL

‘They will see the bird.’

In the examples above, the features of first, second, and third person subject agree with the verb.

3.3.5 Pronoun

A grammatical category referring to a noun as an antecedent and thus serving a deictic or anaphoric function. The Gurmukhi has the following types of pronoun.

1. Personal pronouns
2. Demonstrative Pronoun
3. Reflexive Pronoun
4. Relative Pronoun
5. Interrogative Pronoun
6. Indefinite Pronoun

3.3.5.1 Personal Pronoun

There are three kind of personal pronoun in Gurmukhi. They are as the following:

- First Person
- Second Person
- Third Person

All these persons have different concordial relationship with the verb, tense and mood. The agreement features on the verb change in different tenses according to different persons (first, second or third person) as the agreeing subject or the object. For example:

Person	Singular		Plural	
First	mẽ /mi	‘I’	asi	‘we’
Second	tusi	‘you’	tusi log	‘you’
Third	vəh	‘he’	veh log	‘they’
	veh	‘she’		
	veh	‘it’		

The different concordial relationship are shown below:

First Person: [singular]

mẽ ciq̃i dek^hdi ha
 1.SG bird see.1.SG Aux
 ‘I see the bird.’

First Person: [plural]

asi ciq̃i vek^hde ha
 1.PL bird see.1.PL Aux
 ‘We see the bird.’

Second Person: [singular]

tusi ciq̃ya vende ho
 2.SG bird see.2.SG Aux
 ‘You see the bird.’

Second Person: [plural]

tusi log ciq̃ya dek^hde ho
 2.PL bird see.2.PL Aux
 ‘You (pl) see the bird.’

Third Person: [singular]

vah ciq̃ya vek^hde ha
 3.SG bird see.3.SG Aux
 ‘She sees the bird.’

Third Person: [plural]

veh log ciq̃ya vek^hde ha
 3.PL bird see- TMA.3PL Aux
 ‘They see the bird.’

3.3.5.2 Demonstrative Pronoun

The demonstrative pronoun in Gurmukhi can be described in a two-tier system by taking the spatial distance into account like

- i) Proximate demonstrative pronoun referring to the objects nearer to the speaker,
- ii) Remote demonstrative pronoun that refers to the objects away from the speaker.

	Proximate	Remote
Singular	/ye/ 'this'	/vah/ 'that'
Plural	/ye/ 'these'	/ve/ 'those'

Examples are:

/ye kitab-nə pad^ho/
 PROX.SG book-CLA read
 'Read this book.'

/vah eki koṛa ya/
 REM.SG DET horse be.AUX
 'That is a horse.'

3.3.5.3 Reflexive Pronoun

In Gurmukhi language, reflexive pronouns are:

Person	Singular	Plural
First	/k ^h ud/ 'myself'	/sota/ 'ourselves'
Second	/k ^h ud/ 'yourself'	/k ^h ud/ 'yourself'
Third	/k ^h ud/ 'herself', k ^h ud 'itself'	/apne ap/ 'themselves'

/mẽ k^hud k^hada si/
 1.SG myself ate Aux
 'I ate it myself.'

/asi log ud^hər k^hud gaye ha/
 1.PL there ourself go Aux
 'We went there ourselves.'

/tusi kapṛe k^hud d^hovo/
 2.SG cloth yourself wash
 'You wash the clothes yourself.'

/tusi kapṛe k^hud d^hovo/
 2.SG cloth yourself wash
 'You wash the clothes yourself.'

/vah maṭka kʰud coko/
 3.SG pot herself lift.PST
 ‘She lifted the pot herself.’

/veh kər apne ap banaya he/
 3.PL house themselves build.PST Aux
 ‘They built the house themselves.’

3.3.5.4 Interrogative Pronoun

/kon/ ‘who’
 /kayi/ ‘where’
 /kida/ ‘whose’
 /keṭi/ ‘which’
 /ki/ ‘what’
 /kaḍo/ ‘when’
 /kyon/ ‘why’

/ve kon ha/
 3.SG who be
 ‘Who is he?’

/ve kida koṛa he/
 1SG whose horse Aux
 ‘Whose horse is that?’

/tusi ki kʰande ho/
 3.SG what eat.2.SG Aux
 ‘What do you eat?’

3.3.5.6 Indefinite Pronoun

/ye kam koyi vi kar sakda he/
 1.SG work anybody do can Aux
 ‘Anybody can do this work.’

/ye paṭher koyi vi ni cok sakda/
 1.SG stone no one NEG lift can
 ‘No one can lift this stone.’

/ye kam taṛe uico koyi vi kar sakda he/
 1.SG work among AUX anyone do can Aux
 ‘Anyone among you can do this work’

3.3.6 Case

Case or case marker is a grammatical category which establishes a kind of relationship between the noun phrase(s) in the sentence with the help of the semantic value of the verb. In Gurmukhi, case may or may not be marked morphologically. The case marker present in Gurmukhi are as the following:

- I. Nominative Case
- II. Accusative Case
- III. Dative Case
- IV. Instrumental Case
- V. Ablative Case
- VI. Genitive Case
- VII. Locative Case

3.3.6.1 Nominative Case

The nominative case generally marks the subject of a verb or the predicate noun or predicate adjective which is either a noun or a pronoun. In Gurmukhi, the marker for nominative is null (ϕ).

/niyana- ϕ digan diya he/
child-NOM down fall Aux
'The child falls down.'

/ve- ϕ ud^hor k^haloti he/
SG-NOM there stand.3SG be.AUX
'She stands there.'

No overt case is marked on the subject in nominative case in the above sentences.

3.3.6.2 Accusative Case

Accusative case is the case in nominative-accusative languages that marks certain syntactic functions, usually direct objects. In Gurmukhi, the marker for Accusative is null (ϕ) and /nɔ/ as follows:

/vah cidya vek^hde ha/
3.SG bird. ϕ see.3.SG Aux
'She sees the bird.'

/una nɔ kal cidya nɔ marya he/
3SG.ERG yesterday bird-ACC kill-PST Aux
'He killed the bird yesterday.'

3.3.6.3 Dative Case

The dative case designates the indirect object of a transitive verb. Nouns having the role of recipient (as of things given), beneficiary of an action, or possessor of an item are datives. The context plays a crucial factor in differentiating between dative and accusative. In Gurmukhi, the dative marker is /-nə/ as in the following:

/sita ne	proʋniya nə	kʰana	parosya/
Sita-ERG	guests-DAT	food	serve-PST

‘Sita served the food to the guests.’

/ram ne	ʃam nə	kitab	ditti	he/
Ram-ERG	Shyam-DAT	book	give-PST	Aux

‘Ram gave the book to Shyam.’

3.3.6.4 Instrumental Case

This case is used to denote instrument with which the action is performed. In Gurmukhi, the Instrumental case marker is realized as /-na/, /-nal/ as follows:

/mere	kalam	nal	likʰo/
1SG.GEN	pen	with-INS	write

‘Write with my pen.’

/kenci	nal	vala nə	vadya/
scissor	with-INS	hair	cut-PRS

‘The hair is cut with scissor.’

3.3.6.5 Ablative Case

Ablative case is a case that expresses movement of the subject or the object from one place to another either at the spatial plane or at the temporal plane is expressed by the ablative case. In this language ablative case marker is /-tə/ as follows:

/ve	kʰidki	tə	dig	gaya/
3SG	window	ABL	fall-PST	Aux

‘He fell down from my window.’

/buṭe	tə	patte	digde	ne/
tree-OBL	ABL	leaf-PL	fall	Aux

‘The leaves fall from the tree.’

3.3.6.6 Genitive Case

Genitive case is a case in which the referent of the marked noun is the possessor of the referent of another noun. In Gurmukhi, the Genitive case markers are realized lexically that is by taking genitive form of a pronoun as follows:

/e	sare	kər	mere	ne/
PROX.PLU	all	house	1.SG.GEN	Aux

‘These are my houses.’

/eh	odə	caḱṛ	he/
REM.SG	3.SG.GEN	knife	Aux

‘That is his knife.’

3.3.6.7 Locative Case

Locative case is a case that expresses location at the referent of the noun it marks. The location of the subject or object is expressed by the locative case marker. The locative case markers are /-andər/, /-te/. In Gurmukhi, the locative case marker is realized as follows:

/pənsil	bakse de	andər	he/
Pencil	box ACC	LOC	AUX

‘Pencil is inside the box’

/tota	buṭe	te	he/
parrot	tree-OBL	LOC	Aux

The parrot is on the tree.’

3.3.7 Numeral

Numerals refer to the symbol that represents the number. Gurmukhi has cardinal, ordinal and fractional number systems.

3.3.7.1 Cardinal Number

Cardinal number is those numerals which is used for counting. The commonly used form of cardinal number found in Gurmukhi are following:

Cardinal Number	Gloss
/ɛk/	‘One’
/do/	‘Two’
/tini/	‘Three’
/car/	‘Four’
/pānj/	‘Five’
/c ^h e/	‘Six’

/sat/	‘Seven’
/a ^h l/	‘Eight’
/no/	‘Nine’
/dah/	‘Ten’
/giyara/	‘Eleven’
/bara/	‘Twelve’
/tera/	‘Thirteen’
/coda/	‘Fourteen’
/pandra/	‘Fifteen’
/sola/	‘Sixteen’
/satra/	‘Seventeen’
/t ^h ara/	‘Eighteen’
/unni/	‘Nineteen’
/bi/	‘Twenty’
/ikl/	‘Twenty one’
/bayl/	‘Twenty two’
/pacI/	‘Twenty five’

3.3.7.2 Ordinal Number

Ordinal Number is those numerals which used for denoting position or order in a series. The ordinal number found in Gurmukhi as follows:

Ordinal Number	Gloss
/pəhela/	first
/duja/	second
/tija/	third
/põṇe/	three fourth
/antim/	last

3.3.5.3 Fractional

Fractional are also found in Gurmukhi as follows:

Fractional Number	Gloss
/pura/	full
/pao/	quarter
/adda/	half

/d^hai/

two and a half

3.4 Verb Morphology

Verb is a word class that marks Tense-Aspect- Modal- Personal markers distinguished by number and gender. In inflectional languages, verbs may be inflected for Tense- Aspect- Mood along with other constituents in terms of Person, Number and Gender. Accordingly, Verb Morphology deals with the forms and classification of verbs, and their pattern in association etc.

Verb stem is the base of a verb denoting action. The classification of verbs and the types of verbs are presented below.

3.4.1 Classification of verb

Verb stems may be classified as simple or complex. A simple stem consists of only one root. A complex stem has a root followed by one or more derivational or formative elements.

3.4.1.1 Simple Verb

A simple verb is composed of monomorphemic single root. For example:

/jitna/	‘to win’
/dʊbna/	‘to sink’
/ubalna/	‘to boil’

3.4.1.2 Compound Verb

A Compound verb consists of more than one root and may include one or more suffixes. For example:

/mar sʌkda/	kill able	‘to kill’
/maliʃ karna/	massage do	‘to massage’
/c ^h ed karna/	hole do	‘to bore (a hole)’

3.4.2 Transitivity

The number of arguments that a verb takes is called its transitivity. Based on transitivity the verb stems of Gurmukhi can be further divided into three sub-classes as follows:

3.4.2.1 Intransitive verb

Those verbs which take only one argument is referred to as intransitive verb. The occurrence of intransitive verb are as follows:

/kutta ponkan diya he/

dog bark give Aux

‘The dog barks.’

/o rok^h-de t^həle soṇ-daja/

he tree-GEN under sleep

‘He sleeps under the tree.’

3.4.2.2 Transitive Verb

Those verbs which take two arguments are referred to as transitive verb in Gurmukhi. The occurrence of transitive verb are as follows:

/mẽ ciḍi dek^hdi ha/

1SG bird see.PRS.1.SG Aux

‘I see the bird.’

/məhes-ne am k^ha-daja/

mahesh-ERG mango eat

‘Mahesh ate the mango.’

3.4.2.3 Ditransitive Verb

Those verbs which take three arguments are referred to as ditransitive verb. The occurrence of ditransitive verb (/dend/ ‘to give’) are as follows:

/ram-ne siam-nu kətab de-tija/

ram-NOM shyam-DAT book give

‘Ram gave the book to Shyam.’

/sərkār gəribə-nu pehe den-dija/

government poor-DAT money give

‘The government gives money to the poor.’

3.4.3 Finiteness

Finite Verb

A finite verb is a verb form which occurs in an independent clause and is fully inflected according to the inflectional categories marked on verbs in the language. Having the verb stem as the base both Finite and Non-finite verbal formations are presented as realised from Gurmukhi collected data.

The components of finite verb are; 1. Tense, 2. Aspect, and 3. Mood. In Gurmukhi, finite verbs are formed by adding different suffixes to the verb stem and different forms are available for different person and tense. Thus, the finite verbal formation is $\sqrt{\text{ }} + \text{tense marker}$ or $\pm \text{aspect marker} + \text{PNG marker (person + number} \pm \text{gender)}$.

3.4.3.1 Tense

Tense is to locate or identify an action in the time scale as Hockett defines the tense as “a grammatical category showing different locations of an event in time” (Hockett, 1970, pp-167). Verbs in Gurmukhi have three ways composition in tense (Present, Past, and Future) and it gets morphologically marked as is shown below.

3.4.3.1.1 Present Tense

It indicates the action that takes place when the utterance is uttered. Accordingly, the present tense person wise is formed in the following way.

/mẽ	ciq̃i	dek ^h di	ha/
1SG	bird	see-PRS.1SG	Aux
‘I see the bird.’			

/tusi	ciq̃ya	vende	ho/
2SG	bird	see-PRS.2SG	Aux
‘You(sg) see the bird.’			

/veh log	ciq̃ya	vek ^h de	ha/
3PL	bird	see-PRS.3PL	Aux
‘They sees the bird.’			

3.4.3.1.2 Past Tense

Past tense refers to an event which happened before the time of utterance. Accordingly, the past tense in Gurmukhi is formed person wise in following ways.

/asi	ciq̃ya	vek ^h ya	han/
1.PL	bird	see	Aux
‘We saw the bird.’			

/tusi	ciq̃ya	vek ^h ya	han/
2SG	bird	see	Aux
‘You saw the bird.’			

/vah	ciq̃ya	vek ^h i	hasi/
3SG	bird	see	Aux
‘She saw the bird.’			

3.4.3.1.3 Future Tense

Future tense refers to an event which will take place after the time of utterance. Accordingly, the person wise future tense is formed in the following ways:

/asi cidya vek^hage/

1PL bird see

‘We will see the bird.’

/tusi log cidya vek^hage/

2PL bird see

‘You(pl) will see the bird.’

/veh cidya vek^hage/

3PL bird see

‘They will see the bird.’

3.4.3.2 Aspect

Aspect is a grammatical category associated with verbs that expresses a temporal view of the event or state expressed by the verb. Aspectual information implies is related with duration, perfection, habituality etc. Gurmukhi has three aspects interpreted in different tenses as follows:

i. Habitual Aspect

ii. Progressive Aspect

iii. Perfective Aspect

3.4.3.2.1 Habitual Aspect

The Habitual Aspect denotes the action of the verb takes place from time to time. Marking for habitual aspect of two tenses of Gurmukhi are as follows:

/suraj pərab diʃa vic ugda he/

sun east side rise-PRS Aux

‘The sun rises in the east.’

/asi roj gā cun de ha/

1.PL everyday cows milk Aux

‘We milk the cows every day.’

/mẽ nov baje apis jaya karda ha/

1SG 9 o’clock’ office go do Aux

‘I used to go to office at 9 o’clock.’

3.4.3.2.2 Progressive Aspect

In progressive aspect the action of the verb continues. Progressive aspect in all the three tenses is marked as follows:

/tusi cidya vek^han daye ho/
2.SG bird see PROG Aux
'You are seeing the bird.'

/veh cidya vek^han diya ha/
3.SG bird see PROG Aux
'He is seeing the bird.'

/veh log cidya vek^han daye he/
3.PL bird see PROG Aux
'They are seeing the bird.'

3.4.3.2.3 Perfective Aspect

Perfective aspect is an aspect that expresses a temporal view of an event or state as a simple whole, apart from the consideration of the internal structure of the time in which it occurs. Perfective aspect in all the three tenses is marked as follows in Gurmukhi.

/asi cidya vek^h cuke ha/
1.PL bird see PFV Aux
'We have seen the bird.'

/tusi cidya vek^h cuke ho/
2.SG bird see PFV Aux
'You have seen the bird.'

/ve cidya vek^h cuke ha/
3.SG bird see PFV Aux
'He has seen the bird.'

3.4.3.3 Mood

Mood is one of a set of distinctive forms that are used to signal modality. The mode or manner of a speaker is expressed by mood. It incorporates a statement, a command, a question, a doubt etc. Mood in Gurmukhi, observed from the data may be categorized as follows:

3.4.3.3.1 Indicative Mood

Most verbs in this language used are in indicative mood, which indicates the action.

/ʋo kərde andər yɑ/
 3SG home in.LOC Aux
 ‘He is in the house.’

/gāi dud dendi he/
 cow milk give Aux
 ‘The cows give milk.’

3.4.3.3.2 Imperative Mood

/tusi apni kuɖi nɔ saddo/
 2.SG GEN daughter CLA call
 ‘Call your daughter.’

/ka nɔ hatavo/
 grass CLA remove
 ‘Remove the grass.’

3.4.3.3.3 Subjunctive Mood

In the subjunctive mood, the sense is to suppose or desire an action.

/ve mehnət karega te səpʰəl hoyega/
 2SG hardwork do then successful Aux
 ‘If he works hard he will succeed.’

/agər ʈrən dərna ayegi te asi pʰaɖ leŋge/
 if train late come be 1PL catch be
 ‘If the train is late we may catch it.’

3.4.3.3.4 Optative Mood

The optative mood is expressed in following way:

/una sarya nɔ on do/
 3.PL.GEN all CLA come Aux
 ‘Let them all come.’

/tusi sare log javo tʰoɾa paŋi lavo/
 2.PL all people go little water fetch
 ‘Let some of you go and fetch water.’

3.4.3.3.4 Interrogative Mood

/taɾɑ nam ki he/
2.SG name what be
'What is your name?'

/ki ɑp di pən ve/
is 2SG.GEN sister be
'Is she your sister?'

3.4.4 Non-Finite Verb

In Gurmukhi a non-finite verb or verbal form are any of several verb forms which cannot serve as the root of an independent clause. In other words, a non-finite may be described as 'a verb derived words' which has ability to serve as a noun or adjective. It may further be categorized into Infinitives, Gerund and Participles as follows:

3.4.4.1 Gerund

Here the process is:

Verb + noun forming suffix	=	Noun (verbal Noun)
d ^h umpan 'to smoke' + ϕ	=	d ^h umpan 'smoking'

/d^humpan sehat ke liye hani karak he/
smoking health for harmful be
'Smoking is dangerous to health.'

Verb + noun forming suffix	=	Noun (verbal Noun)
terna 'to swim' + ϕ	=	terna 'swimming'

/terna sehat li t^hek ve/
swimming health for good be
'Swimming is good for health.'

3.4.4.2 Infinitives

/men tenʊ on vaste kiya hi/
1.SG 2.SG come for told Aux
'I told you to come.'

/bahut log jeti pesa banana cahde ne/
many people quickly money make desire Aux
'Many men desire to make money quickly.'

3.4.4.3 Participle

/ʃapi huvi kitaba/
print PST books
'Printed books.'

/ʃapi huvi kitaba paʃan vic asan hõndiya ne/
print-PFV book-PL read-INF for easy be.PRS
'Printed books are easy to read.'

/diggi huve p^hal/
fall PST fruit
'fallen fruits.'

/veh diggi huve p^hal nɔ kaʃa kita/
3.SG fall-PFV fruit.PL CLA collect be.PRS
'She collected the fallen fruits.'

3.5 Negation

Negation in Gurmukhi is a morphosyntactic operation by which a lexical item denies or inverts the meaning of another lexical item or construction. This may be done by introducing a negative (a lexical item which expresses negation) or by the process of inverting the meaning of pre-existing lexical item as in follows:

/yeh k^han-de layak nahi ge/
this edible CLA fit NEG
'This is not edible.'

/vah kam nahi kita/
3SG work NEG do.PST
'He did not do the work.'

3.6 Causation

Causative is basically a form where the subject causes something or someone to do or be something and the process is known as causation or causativization. The examples of causativization are as follows:

/me naukər to peʃi-ci kəm kər-onaija/
I servant CLA field.LOC work do-CAUS
'I make the servant work in the field.'

/me koɽe-nu pəʃ-onaija/
 I horse-ACC run-CAUS
 'I am making the horse run.'

3.7 Passivisation

Passivization is basically the transformation of a sentence from an active form to a passive form. It indicates that the subject is the patient or recipient of the action denoted by the verb and the verb form changes to past participle. The realization of passive sentences in Gurmukhi may be observed as follows:

Active: /me roti kʰana-ja/
 I bread eat-IND
 'I eat bread.'

Passive: /roti me-re koʃo kʰadi ʃarije/
 bread I-GEN by eat go
 'Bread is being eaten by him.'

3.8 Adjective

In this language adjectives occur before noun and there is agreement between the adjective and the noun it qualifies for gender and number.

3.8.1 Attributive Adjective

These are noun phrase headed by the modifier noun. For example:

/sona mɔ̃ndʌ/
 good boy
 'The good boy.'

/cʰoɽe bacce/
 small child
 'The small child.'

/vəɽɪ kitabɪ/
 big book
 'The big book.'

3.8.2 Predicative Adjective

Example:

/vah admi moɽa he/
 DEM.SG man fat be.PRS
 'That man is fat.'

/vah	log	ʃaktiʃali	ne/
DEM.PL	men	strong	be.PRS.PL

‘Those men are strong.’

3.9 Adverb

An adverb is a category that qualifies the meaning of a verb, adjective, other adverb, clause, and sentence or any other word or phrase, except that it does not include the adjectives and determiners that directly modify nouns. The types of adverbs observed from the present language variable are as follows:

3.9.1 Adverb of Manner

/holi	gal	karo/
slowly	talk	do

‘Speak slowly.’

/sone	ak ^h ara vic	lik ^h o/
neatly	words	with write

‘Write the words neatly.’

In this language adverbs occur before the verb. Here we have following three types of adverbs. These are the place adverbials. For example:

3.9.2 Adverb of Place

Place adverbials also precede the verb. For example

/ɛrk ^h o/	‘there’
/irk ^h ɔ/	‘here’

3.9.3 Adverb of Manner

Like all other adverbs this type also occurs before the verb. For example:

/sap ^h ayi karni/	‘neatly’
/ruk ^h ayi se/	‘roughly’
/holi/	‘slowly’
/c ^h eti karni/	‘fast (quick)’

3.9.4 Adverb of Time

/ɑʃ/	‘today’
/satta/	‘week’
/boriʃ/	‘year’
/topi/	‘afternoon’
/hun taki/	‘always’

4 SYNTAX

4.1 Word Order

The word order refers to order of the subject, object, and verb. The basic word order of Gurmukhi is SOV. It is shown in the examples below.

/mẽ ciq̃i dekʰi si/
1.SG bird see.PST Aux
'I saw the bird.'

/mẽ bajar giya he/
1.SG market go-PST Aux
'I went to the market.'

In line with the SOV languages, Gurmukhi also exhibits the same kind of properties for their order in sentence. Some of such properties are discussed below.

Order of Noun and Postposition: (Noun + Postposition)

/guru granth sahib di do lal kitabbã/
guru granth sahib GEN two red books
'The two red books of Guru Granth Sahib.'

Order of Genitive and Noun: (Genitive + Noun)

/mera hatʰ/
1.SG.GEN hand
'My hand.'

Order of Adjective and Noun: (Adjective + Noun)

/sona m̃ɔnd̃a/
good boy
'The good boy.'

/vəɽi kitabbã/
big books
'The big books.'

Order of Adverb and Verb: (Adverb + Verb)

/holi gal karo/
slowly talk do
'Speak slowly.'

/sone akc^hara vic lik^ho/
 neatly words with write
 ‘Write the words neatly.’

Order of Auxiliaries and Main Verb: (Auxiliaries follows Main Verb)

/mē bajar giya he/
 1.SG market go-PST Aux
 ‘I went to the market.’

Order of Negation and Verb: (Verb follows Negation)

/yeh k^han-de layak nahi ge/
 this edible CLA fit NEG be
 ‘This is not edible.’

/vah kam nahi kita/
 3.SG work NEG do.PST
 ‘He did not do the work.’

4.2 Types of Sentences

The sentences can be categorized on the basis of formation (Simple, Complex and Compound) and on the basis of function (Declarative, Interrogative, Imperative and Exclamatory) as follows:

4.2.1 Sentence Type I

4.2.1.1 Simple Sentence

A simple sentence contains one independent clause and no dependent clause. The simple sentence in Gurmukhi are as follows:

/asi ciṛia deg-deja/
 we bird see
 ‘We see the bird.’

/o ek katab pəṛ-daja/
 he one book read
 ‘He reads a book.’

/māhes-ne am k^hadaja/
 mahesh-ERG mango eat
 ‘Mahesh ate the mango.’

4.2.1.2 Compound Sentence

A compound sentence is composed of at least two independent clause and they are brought together by a conjunct. The compound sentence in Gurmukhi are as follows:

/diŋe kəm kər-te ratnu so/
day work do night sleep
'Work in a day and sleep at night.'

/kos mətʰi-a cʰoti-ŋa ne kos mətʰia wətʃi-ŋane/
fish some-PL small.CLA and some fish big
'Some fish are big and some are small.'

/mera peɽ pʰisəl gəya tə mẽ geɽ geja/
I.GEN foot slip go CONJ I fall go
'My foot slipped and I fell down.'

4.2.1.3 Complex Sentence

A complex sentence consists of one independent clause and at least one dependent clause. The complex sentence in Gurmukhi are as follows:

/mẽ thik rəhŋga tə kəl auŋga/
I well remain then tomorrow come
'If I am well then I will come tomorrow.'

/aŋər mi cəŋga honda tə tan bədia nikəlŋasi/
if rain good happen then paddy good outcome
'The paddy could have been very good if the rains were received in time.'

/o pukʰa nəi si tawi one roti kʰalaiye/
he hungry NEG Aux CONJ he meal eat
'Although he was not hungry, he ate the meal.'

4.2.2 Sentence Type II

4.2.2.1 Declarative Sentence

A sentence which expresses something in the form of answer or statement.

/asi ciɽia deg-deja/
we bird see
'We see the bird.'

/məhes-ne am k^hadaja/
 ram-ERG mango eat
 ‘Mahesh ate the mango.’

4.2.1.2 Interrogative Sentence

A sentence which helps to ask or enquire something.

/ve kida koṛa he/
 1S.G whose horse be
 ‘Whose horse is that?’

/tusi ki k^hande ho/
 3.SG what eat.2.SG Aux
 ‘What do you eat?’

4.2.1.3 Imperative Sentence

A sentence which is used for advising, ordering, commanding, requesting etc.

/tusi apni kuḍi nṣ saddo/
 2.SG GEN daughter CLA call
 ‘Call your daughter.’

/ka nṣ hatavo/
 grass CLA remove
 ‘Remove the grass.’

4.2.1.4 Exclamatory Sentence

A sentence which exclaims sudden feeling of surprise, liking, disliking etc.

/una sarya nṣ on do/
 3.PL.GEN all CLA come Aux
 ‘Let them all come!’

4.3 Phrases

A phrase is a syntactic structure which acts like a constituent of a sentence. It may be realised in Gurmukhi as Noun Phrase (NP), Verb Phrase (VP), Adjectival Phrase (AP), Postpositional Phrase (PP) and Adverbial Phrase (AP) as follows;

4.3.1 Noun Phrase

A phrase which has a nominal head.

/guru granth sahib di do lal kitabbā/
guru granth sahib GEN two red books
'The two red books of Guru Granth Sahib.'

/sona mōṇḍa/
good boy
'The good boy.'

4.3.2 Verb Phrase

A phrase which has a verbal head.

/māhes-ne am k^hadaja/
ram-ERG mango eat
'Mahesh ate the mango.'

4.3.3 Adjectival Phrase

A phrase which has an adjectival head.

/sona mōṇḍa/
good boy
'The good boy.'

4.3.4 Postpositional Phrase

A phrase which has a postpositional head.

/guru granth sahib di do lal kitabbā/
guru granth sahib GEN two red books
'The two red books of Guru Granth Sahib.'

/təbəl pər k^həɽe ho jaɔ/
table on stand be go.IMP
'Stand on the table.'

4.3.5 Adverbial Phrase

A phrase which has an adverbial head.

/holi gƏl karo/
slowly talk do
'Speak slowly.'

/sone akc^hara vic lik^ho/
neatly words with write
'Write the words neatly.'

4.4 Clauses

Clause is defined as a group of words which has a conjugated verb and its subject. The types of clause observed in Gurmukhi are as follows:

4.4.1 Main Clause

A clause which is not dependent on another clause to make a complete sentence.

/yeh ohi admi he jidi [kamij kal cori hoyi hi/
1SG that man Aux REL shirt yesterday steal become be.AUX.PST
'This is the man whose shirt was stolen last night.'

4.4.2 Subordinate Clause

A clause which is dependent on the main clause to make a complete sentence.

/yeh ohi admi he] jidi kamij kal cori hoyi hi/
1SG that man Aux REL shirt yesterday steal become be.AUX.PST
'This is the man whose shirt was stolen last night.'

4.4.3 Relative Clause

Subordinate clauses which begin with relative pronouns.

/yeh ohi admi he jidi kamij kal cori hoyi hi/
1SG that man Aux REL shirt yesterday steal become be.AUX.PST
'This is the man whose shirt was stolen last night.'

4.4.4 Correlative Clause

A Clause which begin with correlative pronoun.

/yeh ohi admi he jidi kamij kal cori hoyi hi/
1SG that man Aux REL shirt yesterday steal become be.AUX.PST
'This is the man whose shirt was stolen last night.'

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'This is not edible.'

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'He did not do the work.'

4.6 Causativisation

Causative is basically a form where the subject causes something or someone to do or be something and the process is known as causation or causativization. The examples of causativization are as follows:

/mẽ naukər to peɭi-ci kəm kər-onaija/
I servant CLA field.LOC work do-CAUS
'I make the servant work in the field.'

/mẽ koɽe-nu pəɟ-onaija/
I horse-ACC run-CAUS
'I am making the horse run.'

4.7 Passivisation

Passivisation is basically the transformation of a sentence from an active form to a passive form. It indicates that the subject is the patient or recipient of the action denoted by the verb and the verb form changes to past participle. The realization of passive sentences in Gurmukhi may be observed as follows:

Active: /mẽ roti k^hana-ja/
I bread eat-IND
'I eat bread.'

Passive: /roti me-re ko|o k^hadi jarije/
bread I-GEN by eat go
'Bread is being eaten by him.'

To conclude, Gurmukhi is an Indo-Aryan variety which is actually the Punjabi language. Gurmukhi is the name of the script used to write Punjabi. It has a very rich grammar and literary tradition. It is used at every possible forum i.e., reading, writing, reciting etc. The basic word order of Gurmukhi is SOV.

5. TEXT

/do dost te ekī palṁ/
‘Two friends and a bear’

/ramu ute ṣamu do yar si/
‘Ramu and Shyamu were two friends.’

/una ne ikī duje nāl vada kita si kī vo kisi vi musibat vic nāl rahenge/
‘They promised each other that they will remain together in case of any danger.’

/ekī din o ekī jaṅgal vic jaṇ de si/
‘One day, they were passing through a forest.’

/samne unṁ ikī palṁ aya/
‘There came a bear.’

/palṁ ne vek^hya i dove dost dar gaye/
‘Both friends were afraid seeing the bear.’

/ramu dār de mare ruk^h te caḍ giya/
‘Being afraid, Ramu climbed the tree.’

/ṣamu ne ruk^h te caḍna nahi onda si/
‘Shyamu did not know to climb a tree.’

/o apne dost ramu nu bolya menṁ ruk^h te caḍna ni ṁnda/
‘He told his friend Ramu that I do not know to climb a tree.’

/kripya meri madad karī/
‘Please help me.’

/pār ramṁ ne koyi javāb nahi dita/
‘But Ramu did not respond.’

/duk^hi te miyṁṣ hoke ṣamu apni ṣa roke jamin te leṭ gaya/
‘In fear and grief, Shyam lay down on the ground breathless.’

/c^heti hi o^he palṁ a pōciya/
‘The bear came there quickly.’

/jamin te leṭa ṣamu nu dek^hya te usde kol giya usnṛ sṅgan lagya/

‘Lying on the ground, Shyamu saw the bear came near him and started to smell him.’

/kuc dṛ sṅgan te bad o ṣam nu oṭ^he hi c^had^h ke cala gaya/

‘After smelling him for some time, he left Shyam there and went away.’

/ruk^h te beṭ^ha ramu nu lagya ki palṛ ṣamu de kanna vic kuc bolke giya/

‘Sitting on the tree, Ramu felt that the bear has said something in Shyamu’s ear.’

/o c^heti nal t^hale aya ate ṣamu nu puc^han lagya/

‘He came down quickly and started asking Shyamu.’

/dost o palṛ tere nal kan vic ki bolke giya/

‘My friend, what did the bear say in your ears.’

/ṣamu ne jamin to uḍaya ate ramu nu bolya ki/

‘Shyamu stood up from the ground and told Ramu that.’

/o palṛ menṛ kahā kit^he caḍke te dok^hebaz loka te b^harosa na karo tenṛ musibat^h vic kala c^had^hke cala giya/

‘The bear told me not to believe in false friend who leave you alone in case of any danger.’

/ena kehke ṣamu kala hi a giya/

‘Saying this Shyamu left from there.’

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1. INTRODUCTION

Khari Boli or Khari Boli, also known as Kauravi is a set of Western Hindi of the Shauraseni Prakrita, spoken mainly in North-western Uttar Pradesh. It belongs to the Indo-Aryan group of Indo-European language family. Khari Boli originated in Delhi and adjacent regions within the Ganges-Yamuna Doab (interfluvium). During the Mughal period (early 16th to mid-18th century), when political power became centred on Delhi, Khari Boli absorbed numerous Persian words and came to be used as a lingua franca throughout the empire, especially by merchants who needed a common commercial language. Many linguists believe that present Hindi and Urdu languages have their origins in Khari Boli.

Khari Boli is spoken in areas around Delhi, Western Uttar Pradesh and Southern Uttarakhand. Khari Boli was adopted by the Afghans, Persians, and Turks as a common language of interaction with the local population during the period of Islamic invasions and the establishment of Muslim rule in the north of India between the eighth and tenth centuries AD. In time, it developed a variety called Urdu with significant borrowings from Arabic and Persian and that uses the Perso-Arabic script. It was also known as “mixed language.” Sir George Grierson did not mention Khari Boli in his Linguistic Survey of India and the Census of 1881 did not recognize the separate existence of Khari Boli as a vernacular dialect but included it under Braj Bhasha. The term ‘Khari Boli’ first appears in the 1891 Census. Christopher R. King writes about Khari Boli in his book ‘One Language, Two Scripts - The Hindi Movement in Nineteenth Century North India’.

- Indo-European
 - Indo-Iranian
 - Indo-Aryan
 - Central Zone
 - Western Hindi
 - Khari Boli

During 19th century, Khari Boli was regarded as a lingua franca in Northern region of the country. It is also measured as a dialect of high prestige among Hindi dialects. During the 1800, the professors of Fort William College in Kolkata were enthused to write in different languages.

Therefore, many literary works of Khari Boli like Sukhsagar, Rani Ketaki ki Kahani and Premsagar were printed around 1800-1810. However, the earliest examples of Khari Boli can be seen in the compositions of Amir Khusro (1253–1325).

1.1. Official Status

Khari Boli is one of the mother tongues under Hindi language. Khari Boli is often seen as colloquial or rustic by speakers of Standard Hindi.

1.2. Demography

The speakers of Khari Boli are mainly found in Uttar Pradesh and New Delhi. According to 2011 Census, the total Khari Boli population in India is 50,195.

1.3 Socio linguistic Profile

Khari Boli was considered as a higher standard of Hindi dialect as Delhi was regarded as the administrative center in northern India. Standard Hindi and Urdu are based on Khari Boli, specifically on its Dehlavi dialect (Old Hindi), becoming the Hindustani language of the Ganga-Jamuni Tehzeeb. In Uttar Pradesh, the dialect is normally used in Muzaffarnagar, Meerut, Bulandshahr, Saharanpur, Baghpat and Ghaziabad. In the Rohilkhand region of Uttar Pradesh, the districts of Jyotiba Phule Nagar, Moradabad, Bijnor and Rampur, also speak the language. Where as, Yamuna Nagar in Haryana is a partial Khari Boli speaking region. Khari Boli is believed to be the chief dialectical precursor of the Hindi-Urdu prestige dialect. Khari Boli is supposed to have originated along with Braj and Awadhi dialects, during the same period, 900-1200 CE. Khari Boli consists of various characteristics like germination that provides a unique sound and separates it from Awadhi, Braj and standard Hindi-Urdu. There are several features which separate Khari Boli from Urdu Hindi standard dialect. These features are gemination, vowel length, different verb forms and limited loss of aspiration. Moreover, there were some vocabulary and terminologies dissimilarities with Urdu Hindi dialect as well. Khari Boli language is related to four registers of Standardized dialects which are Hindi, Urdu, Rekhta and Dakhini.

1.4. Basis of the present analysis

The present study is an attempt to present the detailed phonological, morphological and syntactic features of Khari Boli language based on the field data collected from Jaunpur district in Uttar Pradesh, the informant being Sri Satish Kumar Shukla (Male -50) and again verified from Smt Veena Devi (Female +50). These data were further verified and cross checked with the data collected during the Mother Tongue Survey of India (MTSI) project. Eight samples which are categorized on the basis of informant's place, gender and age, have been collected in audio-visual mode and are given to different scholars from various universities of India to

write an analytical report on each of the particular variable. The informants were, Smt Shashi Kala Devi, (Female +50), Smt Indra Kala Devi (Female -50), Sri Nausad Ahmad (Male +50) and Sri Vijay Kumar (Male -50), Smt Reena Singh (Female -50), Smt Rammati Devi (F +50), Sri Lilua Ram (M +50) and Sri Bane Singh (M -50). The name of the scholars who have written the analytical reports are Mahboob Zahid, Basudha Das, Deepak Kumar, Sharmistha Chakraborty, Mouparna Sen, Tultul Talukdar, Abhishikta Ghosh and Nivedita Mitra.

All these eight analyses of Khari Boli have been consolidated by Prof. A. R. Fatihi of Aligarh Muslim University. The findings of the consolidated report have been incorporated in the report.

2. PHONOLOGY

Phonology, a derived form of Greek root ‘phone’ meaning ‘sound’ refers to the study of speech sounds. It can also be described as the grammar of speech sounds, dealing with rules for the structuring and sequencing of speech sounds. When we start analyzing data of a natural language phonologically, we find that the speech sounds are composed of two kind of phonological units. First kind of these two phonological units is referred to as segmental sound and another one is referred to as suprasegmental sound. The phonological analysis of a natural language starts from phonemic inventory, that is inventory of phoneme and goes onto the rules that determine which sounds may be combined.

Hereby, we are going to do analysis of the phonological system of Khari Boli. But the analysis does not start with the phonemic inventory; rather it starts with the phonetic inventory as data has its own limitation. Then, it will analyze suprasegmental features and finally it will look onto the syllable structure in the language.

Phonetic Inventory

Languages across the world may have unique phonemic as well as phonetic systems. Phonemic inventory is an inventory of all the distinctive sounds or phonemes from the inventory of language specific speech sounds. The present analysis is based upon phonetic inventory rather than phonemic as it is very difficult to do the phonemic inventory from the data provided. The Phonetic inventory of Khari Boli consists of both segmental or suprasegmental inventories. Phonetic inventory in Khari Boli can be observed as follows:

Phonetic Inventory of Vowels

Vowels [-Consonant, +Syllabic, +Sonarant] refer to those speech sounds which are articulated without perceptible obstruction in oral cavity. In Khari Boli, the vowel system is based on 11 segmental vowels. Out of the 11 vowel phonemes 4 are front, 3 are central and 4 are back.

VowelChart

	Front	Central	Back
Close	i ɪ		u ʊ
Close-mid	E		o
Mid		ə ʌ	
Open-mid	ɛ		ɔ
Open		ɑ	

- **Extra Lengthened Vowel:** In Khari Boli vowels gets extra lengthened some times. The examples of extra lengthened vowels in Khari Boli are as follows

Vowel	Example	Gloss
/i:/	/tari:p ^h /	‘praise’
/ə:/	/də:s/	‘ten’
/a:/	/ra:k ^h /	‘ash’
/o:/	/mo:c/	‘sneeze’
/u:/	/neu:r/	‘mongoose’

Phonetic Inventory of Consonants

Consonants [+Consonantal, -Vocalic] refer to those speech sounds which are articulated with perceptible obstruction in oral cavity. In Khari Boli, the Consonantal system is based on 38 segmental Consonants. The segmental consonants in this language are presented in the following chart.

Consonants Chart

	Bilabi-Al	Dental	Alveo-Lar	Retro-Flex	Alveo-Palatal	Palatal	Velar	Glotal
	vl vd	vl vd	vl vd	vl vd	vl vd	vl vd	vl vd	vl
Oral Stops								
-asp	p b	t d		ɖ ɗ			k g	
+asp	p ^h b ^h	t ^h d ^h		ɖ ^h ɗ ^h			k ^h g ^h	
Nas. Stops								
-asp	m		n	ɳ			ŋ	
+asp	m ^h		n ^h					
Fricatives								
-asp	v		s			ʃ		h
+asp								
Affricates								
-asp						tʃ ʃ		
+asp						tʃ ^h ʃ ^h		
Trills								
-asp				ɽ				
+asp				ɽ ^h				
Flaps								
-asp			ɾ					

+asp			r ^h					
Lateral			l					
-asp								
+asp			l ^h					
Approx.	w					y		

Phonetic Inventory of Diphthongs

From quality point of view, vowel sounds are of two types: monophthong and diphthong. Monophthongs are pure vowels and diphthongs are gliding vowels. A vowel which does not change in quality may be called a monophthong and a vowel sound continually changing quality may be called a diphthong. Diphthong refers to the vowel where there is a single noticeable change in quality during a syllable. Somewhat depending upon the mood of speaker it may be realized as either diphthong or vowel cluster. Examples of diphthongs from the Khari Boli language are as follows

Vowel	Example	Gloss
/ai/	/b ^h ai/	‘brother’
/ae/	/gæ/	‘cow’
/ao/	/pao/	‘quater’
/oe/	/koela/	‘coal’
/oi/	/rəsoĩ g ^h ər/	‘kitchen’
/əu/	/kəun/	‘who’
/əI/	/bər ^h əI/	‘carpenter’
/ua/	/kecuə/	‘earthworm’

Phonetic Inventory of Nasalization

Nasalization is a way of pronouncing sounds characterized by resonance produced through the nose in course of which the velum is lowered, so that some air escapes through the nose during the production of the sound by the mouth. In Khari Boli nasalization occurs with or without the influence of nasal consonants.

Examples of these occurrences of nasalized vowels are shown below.

Vowel	Example	Gloss
/ã/	/cãd/	‘moon’
/õ/	/cõc/	‘beak’
/ĩ/	/ʃ ^h ĩgur/	‘cockroach’
/ẽ/	/ẽri/	‘heel’
/ẽ̃/	/b ^h ẽ̃s/	‘buffalo’

/ə/	/ə̃guṭʰa/	‘thumb’
/ũ/	/cyũṭi/	‘ant’

Phonetic Description and Distribution

Distribution of Consonants

Most of the consonants occur in the initial, medial and final position. As, shown below.

	Initial	Medial	Final
/p/ Bilabial voiceless unaspirated stop.			
	/pəsli/	/kəpra/	/bʰukəmp/
	‘rib’	‘cloth’	‘earthquake’
/pʰ/ Bilabial voiceless aspirated stop.			
	/pʰēpʰra/	/pʰēpʰra/	/bərəpʰ/
	‘lung’	‘lung’	‘ice’
/b/ Bilabial voiced unaspirated stop.			
	/bukʰar/	/debi/	/sə:b/
	‘fever’	‘goddes’	‘all’
/bʰ/ Bilabial voiced aspirated stop.			
	/bʰukəmp/	/cabʰi/	/ʃibʰ/
	‘earthquake’	‘key’	‘tongue’
/t/ Dental voiceless unaspirated stop.			
	/tap/	/murti/	/dāt/
	‘heat’	‘idol’	‘tooth’
/tʰ/ Dental voiceless aspirated stop.			
	/tʰərIya/	/hətʰeli/	/hātʰ/
	‘plate’	‘palm’	‘hand’
/d/ Dental voiced unaspirated stop.			
	/dudʰ/	/branda/	/dərd/
	‘milk’	‘verandah’	‘pain’
/dʰ/ Dental voiced aspirated stop.			
	/dʰan/	/adʰa/	/dudʰ/
	‘paddy’	‘half’	‘milk’
/ṭ/ Retroflex voiceless unaspirated stop.			
	/ṭopi/	/kʰəṭIya/	/pet/
	‘cap’	‘cot’	‘stomach’
/ṭʰ/ Retroflex voiceless aspirated stop.			
	/ṭʰənd/	/sōṭʰI/	/piṭʰ/

	‘cold’	‘dry ginger’	‘back’
/ɖ/ Retroflex voiced unaspirated stop.			
	/ɖakIya/	/əndɖa/	/ɖəndɖ/
	‘postman’	‘egg’	‘punishment’
/ɖʰ/ Retroflex voiced unaspirated stop.			
	/ɖʰəkən/	---	---
	‘lid’		
/k/ Velar voiceless unaspirated stop.			
	/koela/	/bʰukəmp/	/səɾək/
	‘coal’	‘earthquake’	‘road’
/kʰ/ Velar voiceless aspirated stop.			
	/kʰətra/	/bukʰar/	/ra:kʰ/
	‘danger’	‘fever’	‘ash’
/g/ Velar voiced unaspirated stop.			
	/gussa/	/kaɡəɟ/	/svərg/
	‘anger’	‘paper’	‘heaven’
/gʰ/ Velar voiced aspirated stop.			
	/gʰənʈi/	/suŋgʰna/	/sɪgʰ/
	/bel/	‘to smell’	‘horn’
/m/ Bilabial voiced unaspirated nasal stop.			
	/mæʰli/	/medan/	/də:s/
	‘fish’	‘ground’	‘ten’
/mʰ/ Bilabial voiced aspirated nasal stop.			
	---	/kumʰar/	---
		‘potter’	
/n/ Dental voiced unaspirated nasal stop.			
	/neu:r/	/cuna/	/kʰan/
	‘mongoose’	‘lime’	‘mine’
/nʰ/ Dental voiced aspirated nasal stop.			
	---	/a:nʰi/	---
		‘storm’	
/ɳ/ Retroflex voiced unaspirated nasal.			
	---	/nɪɳɐ/	/baɳ/
		‘judgement’	‘arrow’
/ŋ/ Velar voiced unaspirated nasal.			
	---	/əŋɡur/	/ləvəŋ/
		‘grapes’	‘clove’
/ç/ Palatal voiceless unaspirated affricate.			
	/cavəl/	/bəɡica/	/mɪrc/

	‘rice’	‘garden’	‘chilly’
/c ^h / Palatal voiceless aspirated affricate.			
	/c ^h atr/	/pəc ^h orna/	/pũc ^h /
	‘student’	‘to winnow’	‘tail’
/ʃ/ Palatal voiced unaspirated affricate.			
	/ʃInda/	/b ^h ũʃa/	/llaʃ/
	‘alive’	‘arm’	‘treatment’
/ʃ ^h / Palatal voiced aspirated affricate.			
	/ʃ ^h ĩga/	/oʃ ^h a/	---
	‘prawn’	‘sorcerer’	
/v/ Labiodental voiced fricative.			
	/vokil/	/cavəl/	---
	‘advocate’	‘rice’	
/s/ Alveolar voiceless fricative.			
	/səɾək/	/səsur/	/sās/
	‘road’	‘father-in-law’	‘breath’
/ʃ/ Palatal voiceless fricative.			
	---	/ko ʃ I ʃ /	/ko ʃ I ʃ /
		‘attempt’	‘attempt’
/h/ Glottal voiced fricative			
	/həɾa:/	/lohər/	/grəh/
	‘green’	‘blacksmith’	‘plannet’
/ɾ/ Alveolar unaspirated Flap			
	/ɾaʃa/	/kul ^h ari/	/gaʃər/
	‘king’	‘axe’	‘carrot’
/ɾ/ Retroflex unaspirated Trill.			
	/ɾiɾ ^h ki həɖɖi/	/guɾɪya/	/b ^h iɾ/
	‘spine’	‘doll’	‘crowd’
/ɾ ^h / Retroflex aspirated Trill.			
	---	/buɾ ^h a/	/ba:ɾ ^h /
		‘old’	‘flood’
/l/ Alveolar unaspirated Lateral.			
	/ləɾki/	/kela/	/k ^h el/
	‘girl’	‘banana’	‘games’
/l ^h / Alveolar aspirated Lateral.			
	---	/kul ^h ari/	--
		‘axe’	
/y/ Palatal continuant.			
	/yud ^h /	/seyahi/	-----

	‘war’	‘ink’	
--	-------	-------	--

Distribution of Vowels

In Khari Boli all the vowels occur in the initial, medial and final position except /ɛ/ & /ʌ/ which does not occur word initially as it is shown below.

	Initial	Medial	Final
/i/ high front unrounded vowel.			
	/ĩdʰən/	/tin/	/gʰaṭi/
	‘fuel’	‘three’	‘valley’
/ɪ/ Front Mid-High unrounded Short vowel			
	/Istri /	/barIs/	/aɔl/
	‘female’	‘rain’	‘fire’
/e/ mid-high front unrounded vowel.			
	/ekʰ/	/tel/	/picʰe/
	‘one’	‘oil’	‘behind’
/ɛ/ Front Mid-low Un-rounded vowel.			
	---	/mɛdan/	/cʰɛ/
		‘ground’	‘six’
/ə/ Mid central unrounded vowel.			
	/əka:s/	/ṭʰənd/	/solə/
	‘sky’	‘cold’	‘sixteen’
/ʌ/ Low mid central unrounded vowel.			
	---	/bʰunʌna/	---
		‘to fry’	
/ɑ/ Low Back unrounded vowel.			
	/ɑ:ṭʰ/	/ra:kʰ/	/pura/
	‘eight’	‘ash’	‘full’
/ɔ/ Back Mid-Low Rounded vowel.			
	/ɔr/	/dɔrna/	/nɔ/
	‘and’	‘to run’	‘nine’
/o/ Mid-high back rounded vowel.			
	/os/	/sona/	/do/
	‘dew’	‘gold’	‘two’
/u/ Back Mid-High Rounded Short vowel.			
	/ullu/	/sur/	/dɔyalu/
	‘owl’	‘tune’	‘kind’
/u/ High back rounded vowel.			

	/ubalɳa/	/dud ^h /	/ullu/
	‘to boil’	‘milk’	‘owl’

Syllable Structure

A syllable is a unit of sound composed of a central peak of sonority (see, Robins 1968) and the consonants that cluster around this central peak. Syllables are often considered the phonological "building blocks" of words. A syllable may contain only one sound as a peak, one onset and a peak, one peak and a coda or a peak preceded by an onset and followed by a coda. Syllable that end on peak (vowel) is known as open syllable ([+Open]) while syllable that has consonant at last is known as close syllable ([-Open]). Onset and coda as well as peak of the syllable may have more than one phoneme in the form of cluster. The structures of syllable noticed are as follows:

Structure	Openness	Example	Gloss
V	[+Open]	/e/	‘it’
VC	[-Open]	/iṭ/	‘brick’
CV	[+Open]	/nɔ/	‘nine’
CVC	[-Open]	/lal/	‘red’
CCVC	[-Open]	/pətr/	‘letter’
CVCC	[-Open]	/svad/	‘taste’

Syllable Pattern

The syllabic patterns found in Khari Boli words are monosyllabic, disyllabic, trisyllabic and polysyllabic as follows:

Monosyllabic Pattern

Pattern	Example	Gloss
VC	/iṭ/	‘brick’
CV	/nɔ/	‘nine’
CVC	/lal/	‘red’
CVCC	/pətr/	‘letter’
CCVC	/svad/	‘taste’

Disyllabic Pattern

Pattern	Example	Gloss
V-CV	/ũca/	‘high’
CV-CV	/kəp ^{hi} /	‘coffee’

VC-CV	/əcc ^h ɑ/	‘good’
V-CVC	/ɑdət/	‘habit’
CV-CVC	/kItab/	‘book’
CVC-CVC	/hImmət/	‘courage’
CVC-CV	/k ^h ətra/	‘danger’
VC-CVC	/ənpəɾ ^h /	‘illiterate’

Trisyllabic Pattern

Pattern	Example	Gloss
CV-CV-CV	/kul ^h ari/	‘axe’
V-CV-CVC	/ʃəmanət/	‘bail’
V-CVC-CVC	/asIrvɑ:d/	‘blessing’
CV-CVC-CV	/kəbəɖɖi/	‘kabaddi’
CVC-CV-CV	/ʃurmana/	‘penalty’
CV-CV-CVC	/həvalat/	‘lock-up’
CVC-CVC-CV	/mombətti/	‘wax candle’

Polysyllabic Pattern

Pattern	Example	Gloss
V-CV-CV-CV	/əb ^h ineta/	‘actor’
VC-CV-CV-CVC	/elmInIyəm/	‘alluminium’
CV-CV-CV-CV	/məlerIya/	‘malaria’
CVC-CV-CV-CV	/bIddeyaɛ/	‘school’

Consonant Clusters

A consonant cluster is a group of consonants (CC) which have no intervening vowel. The consonant clusters can be only that combination of consonants which come in a single syllable. It may occur at initial position (onset) as well as final position (Coda) of the syllable. In Khari Boli we can see consonant cluster mostly in CC forms, as in follows

Consonant Cluster at initial position of syllable (Onset):

CC	Example	Gloss
pr-	/prem/	‘affection’
br-	/branda/	‘verendah’
tr-	/trIb ^h uʃ/	‘triangle’
mr-	/mrIt/	‘death’
py-	/pyɑʃ/	‘onion’

gy-	/gyarəh/	‘eleven’
gr-	/grəh/	‘plannet’
sv-	/svad/	‘taste’
sy-	/syam/	‘name’
dy-	/dyallu/	‘kind’

Consonant Cluster at final position of Syllable (Coda):

CC	Example	Gloss
-mp	/b ^h ukəmp/	‘earthquake’
-nd	/motIya bInd/	‘cataract’
-nd ^h	/sugənd ^h /	‘scent’
-nɖ	/ɖənd/	‘punishment’
-Nk ^h	/pəNk ^h /	‘wing’
-nʃ	/sətrənʃ/	‘chess’
-tr	/pətr/	‘letter’
-rg	/svərg/	‘heaven’
-sɽ	/dustɽ/	‘naughty’

Gemination

Gemination refers to the occurrence of two same consonants at one place. Presences of Gemination in Khari Boli are as in the following words below;

CC Gem.	Example	Gloss
-pp-	/t ^h əppər marnə/	‘to slap’
-bb-	/bəbbur/	‘babool’
-tt-	/uttər denə/	‘to answer’
-dd-	/kəddu/	‘gourd’
-t̪t̪-	/c ^h ut̪t̪i/	‘leave’
-ɖɖ-	/kəbəɖɖi/	‘kabaddi’
-kk-	/pəkka/	‘ripe’
-gg-	/ləggi/	‘fishing rod’
-cc-	/bəcca/	‘baby’
-ʃʃ-	/ləʃʃə/	‘shame’
-ss-	/gussa/	‘anger’
-nn-	/pənnə/	‘emerald’
-mm-	cəmməc/	‘spoon’
-ll-	/bəlla/	‘bat’
-rr-	/bərrə/	‘wasp’

3. MORPHOPHONEMICS

The alternants of morphemes when they occur with various kinds of affixes, phonological variations take place. Morphophonemics deals with such phonological variations.

In Khari Boli most of the morphophonemic changes are related to the alternation of vowel which may be referred as regular morphophonemic variation. The bases of these variations are

1. Insertion
2. Alternation
3. Deletion.

I. Insertion

1. The third personal pronominal bases /vo/ and /o/ changes into oblique bases i.e /uni- / or /unhe/ respectively when use in Future Tense

/vəh/ ‘he’ > un - /unhe/ ‘he’

Example: 1. vəh cɪɾɪya dek^hta hɛ ‘he sees the bird’
 unhe cɪɾɪya dek^h-ega ‘he will see the bird’

2. The insertion of homophonous phonemes in the formation of higher numerals by the combination of allomorphs of ‘one’, ‘two’ etc. with the allomorph of ‘ten’.

ikkis ‘twenty one’ < ik- + -is
Ikəttis ‘thirty one’ < ik- + tin + -is

Here –kk-, -tt-, etc are the examples of insertion

3. When the monosyllabic verb roots in Khari Boli are inflected for person –number-gender-tense then -w- is inserted between the verb base and the finite verb marker.

kha ‘to eat’ > k^haŋeŋge ‘eats’
le- ‘to take’ > leŋge ‘takes’
dʒa- ‘to go’ > dʒaəŋge ‘will go’

II. Alternation

The alternation of the nucleus vowel phoneme when a nominal marker is attached is seen in Khari Boli and can be observed as Morphophonemic alterations

sona 'gold'	>	/sun/ + /har/ = sunhar 'goldsmith'
loha 'iron'	>	/lo/ + /har/ = lohar 'blacksmith'

4. MORPHOLOGY

Word Formation

Word formation is the creation of a new word or lexeme from an existing one or entirely different one. The common word formation processes present in Khari Boli are as follows

Affixation

A large number of words in Khari Boli are being derived from other existing words by using prefixes and suffixes. Through affixation one can derive Nouns from nouns, Adjectives from Nouns, and Nouns from verbs and so on. The following word will exemplify affixation as a word formation process in Khari Boli.

/ḍak/ (Base) + /-iya/ (base)	→ /ḍakIya/	‘postman’
‘post’		
/nIr-/ (prefix) + /dos/ (base)	→ /nIrdos/	‘innocent’
‘fault’		
/ʃəNgəl/ (Base) + /-i/ (suffix)	→ /ʃəNgəli/	‘wild’
‘forest’		
/sikar/ (Base) + /-ari/ (suffix)	→ /sIkari/	‘hunter’ etc.

Reduplication

Reduplication is a morphological process in which a root or stem or part of it is repeated to create a new lexical item. It may be partial reduplication or full reduplication. The following word will exemplify reduplication as a word formation process in Khari Boli.

/kəb ^{hi} / + /kəb ^{hi} /	→	/kəb ^{hi} kəb ^{hi} /	‘sometime’
/kit/ + /kit/	→	/kit kit/	‘hop-scotch’

One can see /bəṛə bəṛə/ too as an example of reduplication in following sentence.

/vəhã du bəṛə bəṛə gaõ hẽ/
There two big big village AUX
‘There are two big villages.’

Compounding

Compounding is a process of word formation in which person attaches two or more words together to make them one word. The following word will exemplify compounding as a word formation process in Khari Boli.

/gulli/ (Base)	+	/ḍəṇḍə/ (base)	→	/gulli ḍəṇḍə/	‘gilly danda’
‘gilly’		‘stick’			
/mom/ ‘wax’	+	/bətti/ ‘candle’		/mombətti/	‘wax candle’
/rel/ ‘train’	+	/gari/ ‘vehicle’	⇒	/relgari/	‘train’ etc.

Word Class

Word class refers to the category of words made according to their use. The word classes realized in Khari Boli are as follows

Nouns

Noun is a part of speech which denotes a person, place, thing, animal or idea.

Examples	/ra:kʰ/	‘ash’
	/bəcca/	‘baby’
	/cIrya/	‘bird’
	/bukʰar/	‘fever’
	/ram/	‘Ram’

Pronouns

Pronoun is a form or a word which substitutes for a noun. Pronoun may Personal, Demonstrative, Relative, Interrogative, Indefinite and Reflexive in nature.

Examples	/tum/	‘you’
	/mera/	‘my’
	/tumhara/	‘your’
	/tum kʰud/	‘yourself’

Verbs

Verb is a part of speech which denotes an action or action process, whether ongoing, completed or undergone.

Examples	/cʰed kərna/	‘to bore’
	/morna/	‘to bend’
	/kaṭna/	‘to bite’
	/bāḍʰna/	‘to bind’

Adjectives

Adjective is a part of speech which has the main syntactic role to qualify a noun or noun phrase and gives more information about the object.

Examples	/bəɾɑ/	‘big’
	/kʰali/	‘empty’
	/əccʰɑ/	‘good’
	/bʰɑ:ri/	‘heavy’

Adverbs

Adverb is a word that changes or qualifies the meaning of the verb.

Examples	/ʃor se/	‘loudly’
	/roʃ/	‘daily’
	/bad mē/	‘afterwards’
	/dopəhər/	‘afternoon’ etc.

Postpositions

Postposition is the part of speech that shows the relation of the noun or pronoun to some other word in a sentence.

Examples	/pər/	‘on’
	/picʰe/	‘behind’
	/Isme/	‘into’
	/pas/	‘near’

Conjunctions

Conjunction is a part of speech that joins two sentences. It functions as a connector which joins two syntactic elements of equal rank.

Examples	/ɔr/	‘and’
	/lekIn/	‘but’
	/ya/	‘or’

Interjections

Interjection is a part of speech that shows some kind of emotion or sentiment in a sentence. There is no any clear-cut evidence of interjection in Khari Boli. Exclamatory sentences are being created without interjection words.

Examples

/tum kItna ləmbə ho/
 2SG how tall be
 ‘How tall you have grown!’

/vəh əb^{hi}.b^{hi} ʃəvan ləɡta hɛ/
 3SG still young semm be.3SG
 ‘He seems still young!.’

Declinable and Indeclinable Word Classes

These Khari Boli word classes can be broadly divided into two that is declinable and indeclinable categories, depending upon the nature of its own. Those word class which decline for number, gender, person etc. are referred to as Declinable category and those which do not decline for number, gender, person etc are indeclinable category. The entire declinable category will be further elaborated under the heading that is Noun Morphology and Verb Morphology.

Noun Morphology

Noun Morphology deals with the forms of Nouns and their declensional / inflectional pattern in association with Gender, Number, and Case etc. Here under this heading first of all we will see inflection pattern of Khari Boli Noun in association with Gender, Number, Case etc., followed by pronoun morphology which is inflected for case, but only defectively for number and gender as well as person and adjective morphology which is inflected for gender, as well as for case and number; it is further distinguished by addition of suffixes to indicate comparison.

Noun Forms

Depending upon the forms, nouns may be categorized into three kinds - Basic, derived and diminutive. Analysing data we can see both basic and derived nouns in Khari Boli but there is not a clear-cut evidence for diminutive.

- **Basic Nouns-** Basic noun refers to all those nouns which are not derived from any other word classes.

Examples	/tap/	‘heat’
	/ʃəNgəl/	‘forest’
	/har/	‘defeat’
	/seyahi/	‘ink’

- **Derived Nouns-** It refers to all those nouns which are derived from same or any other word classes as follows

/mom/ ‘wax’	+	/bətti/ ‘candle’	→	/mombətti/ ‘wax candle’
/rel/ ‘train’	+	/gari/ ‘vehicle’	→	/relgari/ ‘train’

Inflections on Noun

As a matter of fact, in noun morphology, we deal with the form of noun and their declensional pattern in association with Gender, Number, Case etc. In Khari Boli we can see that nouns are getting inflected for Gender, Number and Case. The pattern of inflection can be observed as in follows

Gender

Gender which refers to a grammatical category is a language specific characteristic. Gender which is either masculine or feminine is not always morphologically marked in Khari Boli. In most of the cases gender is marked lexically. However, it is also derived by suffixation, suppletion or phonological change in Khari Boli. In Khari Boli, gender marking is realized as follows

- i) In **Khari Boli** the gender properties may be marked on an individual lexical item as follows

Masculine		Feminine	
/pita/	‘father’	/mā/	‘mother’
/purus/	‘male’	/Istri/	‘Female’
/bārd ^h a/	‘bull’	/gae/	‘cow’
		/kItab/	‘book’

- ii) In **Khari Boli** the gender properties may be marked through suffixation as follows

Masculine		Feminine	
/pəti/	‘husband’	/pətni/	‘wife’
/ʃet ^h /	‘husband’s brother’	/ʃet ^h /	‘husband’s brother’s wife’
/səmd ^h i/	‘son-in-law’s father’	/səmd ^h In/	‘son-in-law’s mother’

- iii) Gender marking may be done through vowel modification in Khari Boli as follow;

Masculine		Feminine	
/sala/	‘wife’s brother’	/sali/	‘wife’s sister’
sister’/məusa/	‘mother’s sister’s husband’	/məusi/	‘mother’s’
/ləṛka/	‘boy’	/ləṛki/	‘girl’
/dul ^h a/	‘bridegroom’	/dul ^h In/	‘bride’
/gūga/	‘dumb’	/gūga/	‘dumb’

iv) Gender marking may also be done through zero modification in Khari Boli as in follows

Masculine		Feminine	
/dos/	‘friend’	/dos/	‘friend’
/pet/	‘blind’	/pet/	‘blind’ (she)’
/hat ^h i/	‘elephant’	/hat ^h i/	‘elephant (she)’

Number

Number which refers to a grammatical category marked morphologically at the noun or noun phrases. Number can be either singular or plural and can be represented as a binary valued feature [$\pm$ pl]. Singular or [-pl] is the default value for number which is morphologically unexpressed while the non-default value [+pl] may be phonologically realized. Number in Khari Boli realized differently for different nouns. The detail of that realization can be observed as follows

Zero Modification

Number marking in Khari Boli may be realized through Zero Modification. It realized in Khari Boli as follows

Singular		Plural	
/hāt/	‘hand’	/hāt/	‘hands’
/əNgur/	‘grape’	/əNgur/	‘grapes’

Vowel Modification

Number marking in Khari Boli may be realized through Vowel Modification. It realized in Khari Boli as follows

Singular		Plural	
/ləṛka/	‘boy’	/ləṛke/	‘boys’
/bəcca/	‘child’	/bəcce/	‘children’
/g ^h oṛa/	‘horse’	/g ^h oṛo/	‘horses’

Suffixation

Number marking in Khari Boli may be realized through Suffixation. It realized in Khari Boli as follows

Singular		Plural	
/ʈokɾi/	‘basket’	/ʈokərIyã/	‘baskets’
/kəhani/	‘story’	/kəhanIyã/	‘stories’
/ləɾki/	‘girl’	/ləɾkIyã/	‘girls’
/kItab/	‘book’	/kItabẽ/	‘books’

Person

Person which refers to as a grammatical category is not marked morphologically in Khari Boli. Person as inflection categories at nominal element is not marked overtly but marked covertly. It becomes overt in agreement as in following examples.

/əNgur	ugte	hẽ/
‘grapes-3PL	grow.HAB	be.PRS.3PL
‘Grapes grow.’		

/kutta	b ^h õkta	he /
‘dog.3SG	bark.HAB	be.PRS.3SG
‘The dog barks.’		

In this example the marking of third person or [3] on nominal element is on the virtue of third person marking on verbal element.

Case

Case or case marker is a grammatical category which establishes various kind of relationship among the noun phrase(s) in the sentence with the help of the semantic value of the verb. In Khari Boli case may or may not be marked morphologically. The case marker present in Khari Boli may be observed as follows

- Nominative Case
- Accusative Case
- Dative Case
- Instrumental Case
- Ablative Case
- Genitive Case
- Locative Case

Nominative Case

The nominative case generally marks the subject of a verb or the predicate noun or predicate adjective which is either a noun or a pronoun. In Khari Boli, the marker for nominative is null (/Ø/) as in follows

/vəh- Ø	bəʃar	ʃati	hə/
3SG-NOM	market	go	be.PRS.3SG

‘She goes to the market’.

/vəh-Ø	ud ^h ər	k ^h əri	hə/
3SG-NOM	there	stand	be.PRS.3SG

‘She stands there’

/sərkər-Ø	gəribō-ko	pəsa	deti	hə/
‘Government-NOM	poor-DAT	money	give	be.PRS.3SG

‘The Government gives money to poor.’

Accusative Case

Accusative case is the case in nominative-accusative languages that marks certain syntactic functions, usually direct objects. In Khari Boli, the marker for Accusative is null (/Ø/) and /-ko/ as in follows.

/mẽ	roṭi-Ø	k ^h ata	hũ/
1SG	bread-ACC	eat.HAB	be.PRS.1SG

‘I eat bread.’

/həm	gəe-ko	marte	hẽ/
1PL	cow-ACC	beat.HAB	be.PRS.1PL

‘We beat the cows.’

/vəh	bəʃar	mẽ	cor-ko	pəkṛa	t ^h a/
3SG	market	in	thief-ACC	catch	be.PST.3SG

‘They caught the thief in market.’

Dative Case

The dative case designates the indirect object of a transitive verb. Nouns having the role of recipient (as of things given), beneficiary of an action, or possessor of an item are datives. The context plays a crucial factor in differentiating between dative and accusative. In Khari Boli, the dative marker is /-ko/ as in follows.

/sərkər-Ø gəribō-ko pəsa deti hɐ/
'Government-NOM poor-DAT money give be.PRS.3SG
'The Government gives money to poor.'

/ram-ne syam-ko kItab dIya/
ram-ERG shyam-DAT book give.PST.3SG
'Ram gave the book to Shyam.'

Instrumental Case

This case is used to denote instrument with which the action is performed. In Khari Boli, the Instrumental case marker is realized as /-se/ and /ko/ as in follows

/mere kələm-se lɪk^h-o/
1SG.GEN pen-INS write-IMP.
'Write with my pen'

/kɛci-se bəl-ō-ko kaɽ-a/
scissors-INS hair-PL-ACC cut-PST
'The hair is cut with scissors.'

/ram-ne mere kələm-se cɪt̪t̪hi lɪk^h-i/
ram-ERG 1SG.GEN pen-INS letter write-PST.3SG.F
'Ram wrote the letter with my pen.'

Ablative Case

Ablative case is a case that expresses movement of the subject or the object from one place to another either at the spatial plane or at the temporal plane is expressed by the ablative case. In this language ablative case marker is /-se/ as in follows.

/bəcə-ne peṛ-se pʰəl tor-ɑ/
 Child.3SG-ERG tree-ABL fruit pluck-PST.3SG
 ‘The child plucked the fruit from the tree.’

/peṛ-se pətte gIrte hẽ/
 Tree-ABL leaf fall-HAB be.PRS.3SG.
 ‘The leaves fall from the tree.’

Genitive Case or Possessive Case

Genitive case is a case in which the referent of the marked noun is the possessor of the referent of another noun. In Khari Boli, the Genitive case markers are realized lexically that is by taking genitive form of a pronoun as follows

/vəh uskɑ caku hẽ/
 that 3SG.GEN knife be.PRS.3SG
 ‘That is his knife.’

/vəh-səb mere kItabẽ hẽ/
 that-PL 1SG.GEN book.PL be. PRS.3PL
 ‘Those are my books.’

Locative Case

Locative case is a case that expresses location at the referent of the noun it marks. The location of the subject or object is expressed by the locative case marker. In Khari Boli, the locative case marker is realized as in follows

/mere bəcə Iskul-mẽ hẽ/
 1SG.Gen child-PL school-LOC be.PRS.3PL
 ‘My children are in the school.’

/tota peṛ pər hẽ/
 parrot tree LOC be-PRS.3SG
 ‘The parrot is on the tree’

Ergative Case

Ergativity, ‘.... grammatical pattern in which the subject of an intransitive clause is treated in the same way as the object of a transitive clause, and differently from transitive subject (Dixon 1994:1).

/ram-ne mere kələm-se cIttʰi lIkʰ-i/
ram-ERG 1SG.GEN pen-INS letter write-PST.3SG
‘Ram wrote the letter with my pen.’

/ram-ne syam-ko kItab dIya/
ram-ERG shyam-DAT book give.PST.3SG
‘Ram gave the book to Shyam.’

Pronoun

A closed category used in grammatical category which can substitute a noun phrase or a single noun are known as Pronoun. In Dehati, we may observe following types of pronouns;

- Personal Pronouns
- Demonstrative Pronouns
- Reflexive Pronouns
- Relative Pronouns
- Interrogative Pronouns
- Indefinite Pronouns

Personal Pronoun

Personal pronouns are pronouns used as alternates for proper or common nouns. In Khari Boli personal pronouns are being categorized according to Persons, Number and Gender as follows

Person	Singular	Plural
First	/mẽ/ ‘I’	/həm/ ‘we’
Second	/tu/ ‘you’	/əplog/ ‘you’
Third (M)	/vəh/ ‘he’	/omən/ ‘they’
Third (F)	/vəh/ ‘she’	

Demonstrative Pronoun

Demonstratives refer to those pronouns that point out an intended referent. In Khari Boli, we may differentiate demonstrative pronoun according to the Number and Proximity as follows

	Singular	Plural
Proximate	/yəh/ ‘this’	/yəh/ ‘these’
Remote	/vəh/ ‘that’	/ve/ ‘those’

- **Proximate Singular:**

/yəh əcc^hi kəhāni/
 PROX.SG good story
 ‘This good story’

- **Proximate Plural:**

/yəh kəhānIyā əcc^hi hẽ/
 PROX.PL story-PL good be.AUX
 ‘These stories are good.’

- **Remote Singular:**

/vəh lərki bəhri hẽ/
 REM.SG girl deaf be.AUX
 ‘That girl is deaf.’

- **Remote Plural:**

/ve lərkiyā sundər hẽ/
 REM.PL girl-PL beautiful be.AUX
 ‘Those girls are beautiful.’

Reflexive Pronoun

A reflexive pronoun is a pronoun that is preceded by the noun to which it refers within the same clause. A reflexive pronoun is an anaphor that must be bound by its antecedent in its local domain. In Khari Boli it may be observed as follows

Person	Singular	plural
First	/k ^h ud/ ‘myself’	/k ^h ud/ ‘ourselves’
Second	/k ^h ud/ ‘yourself’	/k ^h ud/ ‘yourselves’
Third (M)	/k ^h ud/ ‘himself’	/k ^h ud/ ‘themselves’
Third (F)	/k ^h ud/ ‘herself’	

In Khari Boli, reflexive pronoun is realized as /k^hud/ for all pronouns which is bound with pronominal antecedent as in following Examples

/mẽ vəh k^hud k^haya t^ha/
1SG REM.SG REFL eat be.1SG.PST
‘I eat it myself.’

/vəh məṭka k^hud uṭ^hai/
3SG.F pot-ACC REFL lift.TAM
‘She lifted the pot herself.’

Relative Pronoun

The pronouns that introduce a relative clause which refers to some antecedent are called as relative pronoun. In Khari Boli, relative pronouns found are as follows

/ɟIsse/ ‘whom’
/ɟo/ ‘who’
/ɟIsne/ ‘that’
/ɟəhã/ ‘where’

Relative pronoun is realized as follows in Khari Boli;

/yeh vohi admi hɛ ʃɪs-se kəl mẽ mɪla tʰa/
PROX.SG COREL man be REL-ACC tomorrow 1SG meet
be.AUX
'This is the man whom i met yesterday.'

/yəh vohi ʃəgəh hɛ ʃəhã gay-ẽ cərtĩ hẽ/
REM.SG COREL place be REL cow-PL graze be.AUX
'That is the place where the cows graze.'

Interrogative Pronoun

An interrogative pronoun is used to ask questions. The interrogative pronouns realized in Khari Boli are as follows

/kyũ/	'why'
/kya/	'what'
/kəunsa/	'which'
/kəhã/	'where'

It realizes in Khari Boli as in following example

/tumhara nam kya hɛ/
2SG.GEN name what be.AUX
'What is your name?'

/tum kyũ ʃa rəhe ho/
2SG why go PROG be.AUX
'Why are you going ?'

Indefinite Pronoun

The pronouns which are used to denote some non-definite person or thing instead of definite person or thing are called Indefinite pronouns. In Khari Boli indefinite pronoun is realized as follows:

/koi b^hi / ‘anybody’

/koi nəhi/ ‘nobody’

/koi b^hi/ ‘anyone’

/səb kuc^h/ ‘everything’

As in the following sentences;

/yəh kam koi.b^hi kər səktə hɛ/
PROX.SG work anybody do MOD be.AUX
‘Anybody can do this work.’

/yəh kam koi.nəhi kər səktə hɛ/
PROX.SG work nobody do MOD be.AUX
‘Nobody can do this work.’

Verb Morphology

Verb Morphology deals with the forms of verbs and their declensional/ inflectional pattern in association with Tense, Aspect, Mood, etc. Verbs in Khari Boli can be of different type, depending upon the nature and form of verbs. Khari Boli verb in terms of complexity can be divided into two i.e. basic verb stem and complex verb which further can be divided into several sub groups such as primary, conjunct and compound verb. Khari Boli verbs in terms of use may be of helping verb or main verb. While in terms of agreement feature Khari Boli verbs are divided into two that is finite and nonfinite verbs. In terms of uses it may of several types. These all we can see under following headings;

I) Verbs in terms of Uses

Verb which denotes action can be of several types in terms of uses. Verb in terms of uses in Khari Boli are as follows.

- **Physical Verbs:** Following are the examples of physical verb which is reported in the data.

Verb	Glossary
/b ^h ʃkna/	to bark (as a dog)

/pɪʈna/	to beat (somebody)
/morna/	to bend (stick)
/bãd ^h na/	to bind
/kaʈna/	to bite

- **Instrument Verbs:** Following are the examples of instrumental verb which is reported in the data.

Verb	Glossary
/sɪkar kərna/	hunt
/k ^h odna/	Scoop out

- **Verbs of Fighting:** Following are the examples of fighting verb which is reported in the data.

Verb	Glossary
/həmla kərna/	to attack
/har ʃana/	to defeat
/marna/	to kill
/ləʃai kərna/	to fight (with each other)
/dəbocna/	to grab

- **Music Verbs:** Following are the examples of music verb which is reported in the data.

Verb	Glossary
/d ^h ol bəʃana/	to beat (a drum)
/nacna/	to dance
/bəʃana/	to play (musical instrument)
/gana gana/	to sing

- **Motion Verbs:** Following are the examples of motion verb which is reported in the data.

Verb	Glossary
/caro or ʃana/	to go around
/bahər ʃana/	to go out of (a house)

/marg dIk ^h lana/	to guide (show the way)
/kudna/	to jump

- **Occupational Verbs:** Following are the examples of occupational verb which is reported in the data.

Verb	Glossary
/sərab bənaana/	to brew (beer)
/k ^h et ʃotna/	to cultivate (tend crop)
/elaʃ kərna/	to cure (an illness)
/baI kaʃna/	to cut (hair)
/saq ^h kərna/	to clean

- **Culinary Verbs:** Following are the examples of culinary verb which is reported in the data.

Verb	Glossary
/k ^h ana/	to eat
/k ^h lana/	to feed
/b ^h unaana/	to fry (deep, shallow)
/pisna/	to grind
/mllana/	to mix

- **Cosmetic Verbs:** Following are the examples of cosmetic verb which is reported in the data.

Verb	Glossary
/kəNg ^h i korna/	to comb (hair)
/kəpɾa pəhInna/	to put on
/kəpɾa utarna/	to take off (clothing)
/baɾ bād ^h na/	to tie (hair)

- **Communication Verbs:** Following are the examples of communication verb which is reported in the data.

Verb	Glossary
/uttər dena/	to answer

/puc ^h na/	to ask (to question)
/māgna/	to ask for, some thing
/bulana/	to call

- **Non Motion Verbs:** Following are the examples of non motion verb which is reported in the data.

Verb	Glossary
/kərne ke yogge hona/	to approve
/cup rəhna/	to be able
/ud ^h ar lena/	to be silent
/ag ʃəlanda/	to borrow

- **Inchoative Verbs:** Following are the examples of inchoative verb which is reported in the data.

Verb	Glossary
/b ^h igona/	to soak
/ʃəgna/	to sprout
/p ^h ul ʃana/	to swell
/gaṛ ^h a kərna/	to thicken (soup or gravy)
/gila hona/	to wet (make wet)

- **Cognitive Verbs:** Following are the examples of cognitive verb which is reported in the data.

Verb	Glossary
/bIsvas kərna/	to believe
/ʃanna/	to know
/sik ^h na/	to learn
/səpna dek ^h na/	to dream

- **Sensory Verbs:** Following are the examples of sensory verb which is reported in the data.

Verb	Glossary
/h<→sna/	to laugh

/dek ^h na/	to look
/sona/	to read
/yad kərna/	to remember
/dek ^h na/	to see

- **Emotive Verbs:** Following are the examples of emotive verb which is reported in the data.

Verb	Glossary
/dərd hona/	to pain
/prart ^h na kərna/	to pray
/k ^h uIya mənana/	to regret
/cillana/	to scream
/cahna/	to want

II) Verbs in Terms of Function

Verbs in term of function can be divided into two i.e. Main Verbs (MV) and Auxiliary Verbs. Main verb is a type of verb which denotes an action, event or state in a sentence while Auxiliaries are a type of verb which helps to the main verb. Like most of the Indian languages Khari Boli Auxiliary too follows the main verb. The auxiliary verbs in Khari Boli are of two types i.e. Primary and Modals as in follows

/kutta ud^hər k^həṛa hɛ/
 Dog there stand(MV) be.AUX
 ‘The dog is standing there.’

/və h əb^hi.b^hi a: səkta hɛ/
 3SG.M still come(MV) Modal be.AUX
 ‘He may still come.’

III) Verbs in Terms of Forms

Verbs in Khari Boli can be of different type, depending upon their structural complexity and form. Khari Boli verbs in terms of structural complexity may be divided into two i.e. basic verb base (primary and derived) and complex verb base (conjunct and compound).

- **Primary bases:** In Khari Boli Primary bases are those bases of verb which stands on its own and they are not derived from any other bases as follows

/h↵sna/	‘to laugh’
/suNg ^h na/	‘to sleep’
/dek ^h na/	‘to see’ .

- **Derived bases:** In Khari Boli Derived bases are those bases which are formed by adding various kinds of derivative suffixes to the verbal or non-verbal stem. Causatives are examples of derived bases in Khari Boli.

Example;	/k ^h lana/	‘to feed
	/ubalna/	‘to boil’

- **Conjunct bases:** Conjunct bases are those bases that involve the combination of a substantive (i.e., nouns and adjectives) and a verb stem. In Khari Boli it realized as following Examples

/bārbad kārna/	‘to destroy’
/sāp ^h kārna/	‘to clean’

- **Compound Bases:** Compound bases are those bases that involve combinations of two verb-stems. In Khari Boli it realized as following Examples

/c ^h apa mārna/	‘to raid
/j ^h əgrā kārna/	‘to quarrel’

IV) Verbs in terms of Transitivity

The number of arguments that a verb takes is called its transitivity. Based on transitivity the verb stems of Khari Boli can be further divided into three sub-classes as follows.

- **Intransitives:** Those verbs which take only one argument is referred to as intransitive verb. The occurrence of intransitive verb (/jana/ ‘to go’) can be observed as follows

/mẽ g^hər ʃata hũ/
 1SG house go be.AUX
 ‘I go to the house.’

- **Transitives:** Those verbs which take two arguments are referred to as transitive verb in Khari Boli. The occurrence of transitive verb (/k^hana/ ‘to eat’) can be observed as follows

/mẽ roṭi k^hata hũ/
 1SG bread eat be.AUX
 ‘I eat bread’

- **Ditransitive:** Those verbs which take three arguments are referred to as ditransitive verb in Khari Boli. The occurrence of ditransitive verb (/dena/ ‘to give’) can be observed as follows

/ram-ne syam-ko kItab dIya/
 ram-ERG shyam-DAT book give.PST.3SG
 ‘Ram gave the book to Shyam.’

V) Verbs in terms of Finiteness

Based on Finiteness, Khari Boli Verbs can be divided into two i.e. finite verbs and non-finite verb. A finite verb is those verbs which function as the root of an independent clause and decline for inflections (see ‘Inflection on Finite Verbs’ below). While, a nonfinite verb or verbal are any of several verb forms which cannot serve as the root of an independent clause. It functions either as a verbal noun or verbal adjectives as in follows

/vəh gIre huwe p^həlō-ko əkəṭṭ^hā ki t^hi/
 3SG.F ADJ fruit-ACC collect do be.AUX
 ‘She collected the fallen fruits.’

Inflection on Finite Verbs

Finite verbs in Khari Boli are those verbs which decline for inflections in a language. It consists of a stem followed by tense, aspect and mood markers which are further followed by person, gender and number markers. These person, gender and number markers maintain agreement with the subject or object in a sentence and vary according to their person, gender and number markers.

Tense

Tense is an effort to locate or identify an action in the time scale as Hockett defines the tense as “a grammatical category showing different locations of an event in time” (Hockett, 1970, pp-167). Verbs in Khari Boli have three ways opposition in tense (Present, Past and Future) and it gets morphologically marked as follows

Present Tense

It indicates the action that takes place when the utterance is uttered. Accordingly, the present tense person wise is formed in the following way.

1 Person Singular:

/mẽ cɪɾɪya dekʰta hũ/
1SG bird see.IMPF be.PRS.1SG
'I see the bird.'

1 Person Plural:

/həm cɪɾɪya dekʰte hẽ /
1PL bird see.IMPF be.PRS.1PL
'We see the bird.'

2 Person Singular:

/tum cɪɾɪya dekʰte ho/
2SG bird see.IMPF be.PRS.2SG
'You (sg) see the bird.'

2 Person Plural:

/aplog cɪɾɪya dekʰte hẽ/
2PL bird see.IMPF be.PRS.2PL
'You (pl) see the bird.'

3 Person Singular (M):

/vəh cɪɾɪya dekʰta hẽ/
3SG bird see.IMPF be.PRS.3SG
'He sees the bird.'

3 Person Singular (F):

/vəh cɪɾɪya dek^hti hɛ/
3SG bird see.IMPF be.PRS.3SG
'She sees the bird.'

3 Person Plural:

/ve cɪɾɪya dek^hte hẽ/
3PL bird see.IMPF be.PRS.3PL
'They see the bird.'

Past Tense

Past tense refers to an event which happened before the time of utterance. Accordingly, the past tense in Khari Boli is formed person wise in following ways.

1 Person Singular:

mẽne cɪɾɪya dek^ha t^ha/
1SG-ERG bird see.IMPF.PST be.PST.1SG
'I saw the bird.'

1 Person Plural:

/həmne cɪɾɪya dek^ha t^ha/
1PL-ERG bird see.IMPF.PST be.PST.1PL
'We saw the bird.'

2 Person Singular:

/tum-ne cɪɾɪya dek^ha t^ha/
2SG-ERG bird see.IMPF.PST be.PST.2SG
'You (sg) saw the bird.'

2 Person Plural:

/aplogo-ne cɪɾɪya dek^ha t^ha/
2PL-ERG bird see.IMPF.PST be.PST.2PL
'You (pl) saw the bird.'

3 Person Singular (M):

/usne cɪɾɪya dek^ha t^ha/
3SG bird see-IMPF.PST be.PST.3SG
'He saw the bird.'

3 Person Singular (F):

/vəh cɪɾɪya dek^hi t^hi/

3SG bird see.IMP.F.PST be.PST.3SG

‘She saw the bird.’

3 Person Plural:

/un^ho-ne cɪɾɪya dek^ha t^ha/

3PL-ERG bird see.IMP.F.PST be.PST.3PL

‘They saw the bird.’

Future Tense

Future tense refers to an event which will take place after the time of utterance. Accordingly, the person wise future tense is formed in the following ways.

1 Person Singular:

/mẽ cɪɾɪya dek^h-ũga/

1SG bird see-FUT.1SG

‘I will see the bird.’

1 Person Plural:

/həm cɪɾɪya dek^hẽge/

1PL bird see-FUT.1PL

‘We will see the bird.’

2 Person Singular:

/tum cɪɾɪya dek^h-oge/

2SG bird see-FUT.2SG

‘You (sg) will see the bird.’

2 Person Plural:

/tum cɪɾɪya dek^h-oge/

2PL bird see-FUT.2PL

‘You (pl) will see the bird.’

3 Person Singular (M):

/unhe cɪɾɪya dek^h-ega/

3SG bird see-FUT.3SG

‘He will see the bird.’

3 Person Singular (F):

/vəh cɪɾɪya dek^h-egɪ/
3SG bird see-FUT.3SG
'She will see the bird.'

3 Person Plural:

/ve log cɪɾɪya dek^h-ẽge/
3PL people bird see-FUT.3PL
'They will see the bird.'

Aspect

Aspect is a grammatical category associated with verbs that expresses a temporal view of the event or state expressed by the verb. Aspectual information implies is related with duration, perfection, habituality etc. Khari Boli has three aspects interpreted in different tenses as follows

- Habitual Aspect
- Progressive Aspect
- Perfective Aspect

Habitual Aspect

The Habitual Aspect denotes the action of the verb takes place from time to time. Marking for habitual aspect of two tenses of Khari Boli are as follows.

In Present Tense:

/surəʃ purəb dɪsa mẽ ugta hɛ/
sun east direction LOC rise-HAB be.PRS.3SG
'The sun rises in the east.'

/həm roʃ gae duh-te hẽ/
1PL everyday cow milk-HAB be.PRS.1PL
'We milk the cow's everyday.'

In Past Tense:

/mẽ no bəʃe apɪs ʃaya kər-ta t^ha/
1SG nine o'clock office go do-HAB be.PST.1SG
'I used to go to office at 9 o'clock.'

/tum nɔ bəʃe apɪs ʃaya kər-te tʰe/
 2SG nine o'clock office go do-HAB be.PST.2SG
 'You (sg) used to go to office at 9 o'clock.'

Progressive Aspect

In progressive aspect the action of the verb continues. In Khari Boli verb root changes into progressive forms. Progressive aspect in all the three tenses is marked as follows.

In Present Tense:

/mẽ cɪɾɪya dekʰ rəha hũ/
 1SG bird see PROG be.PRS.1SG
 'I am seeing the bird.'

/həm cɪɾɪya dekʰ rəhe hẽ/
 1PL bird see PROG be.PRS.1PL
 'We are seeing the bird.'

In Past Tense:

/mẽ cɪɾɪya dekʰ rəha tʰe/
 1SG bird see PROG be.PST.1SG
 'I was seeing the bird.'

/həm cɪɾɪya dekʰ rəhe tʰe/
 1PL bird see PROG be.PST.1PL
 'We were seeing the bird.'

In Future Tense:

/həm cãd dekʰ rəhe hõge/
 1SG moon see PROG be.FUT.1SG
 'I will be seeing the moon.'

/həm cɪɾɪya dekʰ rəhe hõge/
 2PL bird see PROG be.FUT.1PL
 'We will be seeing the bird.'

Perfective Aspect

Perfective aspect is an aspect that expresses a temporal view of an event or state as a simple whole, apart from the consideration of the internal structure of the time in which it occurs. Perfective aspect in all the three tenses is marked as follows in Khari Boli.

In Present Tense:

/mẽ cɪɾɪya ko dek^h cuka hũ/
 1SG bird ACC see PFV be.PRS.1SG
 ‘I have seen the bird.’

/tum cɪɾɪya dek^h cuke ho/
 2SG bird see PFV be.PRS.2SG
 ‘You(sg) have seen the bird.’

In Past Tense:

/mẽ cɪɾɪya dek^h cuka t^ha/
 1SG bird see PFV be.PST.1SG
 ‘I had seen the bird.’

/tum cɪɾɪya dek^h cuke t^he/
 2SG bird see PFV be.PST.2SG
 ‘You (sg) had seen the bird.’

In Future Tense:

/vəh cɪɾɪya dek^ha huwa hoga/
 3SG bird see PFV be.FUT.3SG
 ‘He will have seen the bird.’

/vəh cɪɾɪya dek^hi huwi hogi/
 3SG bird see PFV be.FUT.3SG
 ‘She will have seen the bird.’

Mood

Mood is one of a set of distinctive forms that are used to signal modality. The mode or manner of a speaker is expressed by mood. It incorporates a statement, a command, a question, a doubt etc. Mood in Khari Boli, observed from the data may be categorized as follows

Indicative Mood:

/bəcə muɟ^he dek^hte hẽ/
 child-PL 1SG-ACC see be.PRS.3SG
 ‘The children see me.’

Imperative Mood:

/yəh kɪtab pəɾʰo/
 PROX.SG book read.IMP
 ‘Read this book.’

Subjunctive Mood:

/tum kʰet pər ʃao ya mɛ ʃata hũ/
 2SG field LOC go or 1SG go be.1SG
 ‘Either you go or I shall to the field.’

Optative mood:

/un səbʰi ko ane do/
 3PL All ACC come give.OPT
 ‘Let them all come.’

Compulsive Mood:

/tume do kele kʰana cahlye/
 2SG.DAT two banana eat should
 ‘You should eat two bananas.’

Conditional mood:

/əgər mɛ tʰik rəhũ-ho to kəl aũga/
 COND 1SG well remain-FUT then tomorrow come.FUT.1SG
 ‘If I am well I will come tomorrow.’

Non-finite

In Khari Boli a non-finite verb or verbals are any of several verb forms which cannot serve as the root of an independent clause. In other words, a non-finite may be described as ‘a verb derived words’ which has ability to serve as a noun or adjective. It may further be categorized into Infinitives, Gerund and Participles as follows

Infinitives:

/mɛ-ne tum-ko ane ke llye kəha tʰa/
 1SG-ERG 2SG-ACC come.INF of for say be.PST-1SG
 ‘I told you to come.’

Gerund:

/terna sehət ke llye əccʰa hɛ/
 Swimming health of for good be.PRS
 ‘Swimming.GER is good for health.’

Participle:

vəh glre.huwe pʰəlõ ko əkəttʰũ ki tʰi/
3SG.F ADJ fruit ACC collect do be.PST
'She collected the fallen fruits.'

Negation

Negation in Khari Boli is a morphosyntactic operation by which a lexical item denies or inverts the meaning of another lexical item or construction. This may be done by introducing a new negator (a lexical item which expresses negation) or by the process of inverting the meaning of preexisting lexical item as in follows

By Introducing a Negator

/yəh kʰane læk nəhI hɛ/
PROX.SG eat able NEG be.PRS
'This is not edible'

/mere pas kucʰ nəhI hɛ/
1SG near anything NEG be.PRS
'I have nothing with me.'

Causation

Causative is basically a form that a subject cause something or someone to do or be something and the process is known as causation or causativization. In Khari Boli causativization may be observed as follows

/mẽ panI ubalta hũ/
1SG water boil.CAUS.HAB be.PRS.1SG
'I boil water.'

/mẽ bəcce-ko kʰilata hũ/
1SG child-DAT eat.CAUS.HAB be.PRS.1PL
'I feed the baby.'

Passivisation

Passivization is basically the transformation of a sentence from an active form to a passive form. The realization of passive sentences in Khari Boli may be observed as follows

/roṭi mere dwara kʰaya ʃa rəha hɛ/
 Bread-ACC 1SG.DAT by eat.PASS go PROG be.PRS.1SG
 ‘Bread is being eaten by me.’

tumhara koṭ sɪlvaya ʃa rəha hɛ/
 2SG.GEN coat stitch.PASS go PROG be.PRS.1SG
 ‘Your coat is being stitched.’

Adjectives

Adjective is a part of speech which has the main syntactic role to qualify a noun or noun phrase and gives more information about the noun or noun phrase. In Khari Boli we can observe Adjectives as follows

Variable and Non-Variable Adjectives

In Khari Boli, adjectives may or may not show variation in its base form according to the noun they modify (i.e. it may or may not show agreement with the noun). Adjectives which show variations are variable adjectives and adjectives which do not show variation are non variable adjectives as follows

Variable Adjective:

/cʰoṭa~cʰoṛe/ in

/cʰoṭa bæcca/ ‘The small child’

/cʰoṭe bæcce/ ‘The small children’

Non Variable Adjective:

/bɪsaɪ ~ bɪsaɪ/ in

/bɪsaɪ peṛ/ ‘The large tree’

/bɪsaɪ peṛõ/ ‘The large trees’

Attributive and Predicative Adjectives

This categorization of adjectives in Khari Boli depends upon the position of adjectives in the sentence. Attributive adjectives are those adjectives which modify a noun by directly being linked to the noun as part of the noun phrase while predicative is directly linked to the verb. For instance, adjective behri meaning ‘deaf’ in the following phrase is attributive adjectives.

Attributive Adjective:/c^hoṭa & bIsal/ in/c^hoṭa bæcca/

‘The small child’

/bIsal per/

‘The large tree’

Predicative Adjective:

/bəhri & moṭa/ in

/vəh ləṛki bəhri hɛ/

‘That girl is deaf.’

/vəh admi moṭa hɛ/

‘That man is fat.’

Descriptive and Limiting Adjectives

An adjective can modify the noun by giving it some description or by limiting its boundary. Adjectives (color, size etc.) which gives description to the noun are known as descriptive adjectives while adjectives which impose limitation on the noun are known as limiting adjectives (possessive, demonstrative, interrogative, numeral etc.) as follows

Descriptive Adjective:/c^hoṭa & səp^hed/ in/c^hoṭa bæcca/

‘The small child’ (size)

/səp^hed g^hoṛa/

‘The white horse’ (Color)

Limiting Adjective

/mere, vəh, kIskar & do/ in

/mere hat/

‘My hand’

(Possessive)

/vəh admi/

‘That man’

(Demonstrative)

/kIskar g^hoṛa/

‘Whose horse’

(Interrogative)

/do kItabẽ/

‘two books’

(Numeral)

Numerals

Numerals refer to the symbol that represents the number. Khari Boli has cardinal, ordinal and fractional number systems.

Cardinal Number

In mathematics, cardinal numbers, or cardinals for short, are a generalization of the natural numbers used to measure the cardinality of sets. The cardinality of a finite set is a natural number: the number of elements in the set. Examples of cardinal numbers of Khari Boli are

Cardinal Number	Glossary	Cardinal Number	Glossary
/ek ^h /	one	/pētis/	thirty five
/do/	two	/uncalis/	thirty nine
/tin/	three	/ektalis/	forty one
/car/	four	/bəyalis/	forty two
/pāc/	five	/pētalis/	forty five
/c ^h ε/	six	---	forty nine
/sat/	seven	/kyavən/	fifty one
/a: ^h t/	eight	/pəcpən/	fifty five
/no/	nine	/unsəṭ ^h /	fifty nine
/də:s/	ten	/ektalis/	sixty one
/gyarəh/	eleven	/bəyalis/	sixty five
/barəh/	twelve	/unhəttər/	sixty nine
/terəh/	thirteen	/ekhəttər/	seventy one
/cəudəh/	fourteen	/pəc ^h əttər/	seventy five
/pəndrəh/	fifteen	---	seventy nine
/solə/	sixteen	/ekkyasi/	eighty one
/sətrə/	seventeen	/pəcasi/	eighty five
/əṭṭ ^h arə/	eighteen	/nəvasi/	eighty nine
/unnəIs/	nineteen	/Ikkyanbe/	ninety one
/bis/	twenty	/pəncanbe/	ninety five
/əkkəIs/	twenty one	/ninnyanbe/	ninety nine
/bais/	twenty two	/sə/	hundred
/pəcis/	twenty five	/tin sə/	three hundred
/untis/	twenty nine	---	five hundred
/ektis/	thirty one	/həʃar/	thousand

From eleven to eighteen the numerals are formed by adding /-yara/, /-ra/, /-da/, /-ara/ to the allomorphs of /ek/, /dO/, /tin/ which are respectively /Ik-~Ig-, /ba-, /te-, /tʃo-, /pā-/ etc. Accordingly, the numbers as given above.

The formation like ‘nineteen’, ‘twenty-nine’, ‘thirty-nine’ and so on are made by adding /un-/~ /Un/ (one less than) and thus uni ‘nineteen’, unəti ‘twenty-nine’, unṭəli ‘thirty-nine’ etc.

Ordinal Number

Ordinal Number is those numerals which used for denoting position or order in a series. The ordinal number found in Khari Boli as follows.

Ordinal Number	Glossary
/pəhla/	first
/dusra/	second
/tisra/	third

Fractional Number

Fractional are also found in Khari Boli as follows

Fractional Number	Glossary
/pao/	‘quarter’
/ad ^h a/	‘half’
/d̪er ^h /	‘one and a half’

Adverbs

An adverb is a word that basically qualifies the meaning of a verb, adjective, other adverb, clause, and sentence or any other word or phrase, except that it does not include the adjectives and determiners that directly modify nouns. The types of adverbs observed from the present language variable are as follows:

Adverb of Manner:

/d^hire se/ in
 /d^hire.se bɑ:t kəro/
 Slowly talk do.IMP
 ‘Speak slowly.’

Adverb of Time:

/car bəʃe ke bad/ in
 /car bəʃe ke bad yao/
 Four o’clock after come.IMP
 ‘Come after 4 O’clock.’

Adverb of Place:

/yəhā/ in
 /mẽ yəhā ata hũ/
 1SG here come be.PRS.1SG
 ‘I come here.’

Adverb of Direction:

/dɪsa mẽ/ in

/surəʃ purəb dɪsa mẽ uɡta hɛ/

Sun east direction LOC rise.HAB be.PRS

‘The sun rises in the east.’

5. SYNTAX

Syntax is that level of linguistics which deals with how words are joined together for the formation of Phrases, Clauses as well as Sentences. The syntactic sketch of Khari Boli can be drawn as follows

Word Order

The concept word order refers to the order of sentential element. The common word orders found in Khari Boli are as follows

Order of Subject Object and Verb = SOV

/mẽ cɪɾɪya dekʰta hũ/
1SG bird see be.PRS.1SG
'I see the bird.'

Order of Subject and Verb = SV

/kutta bʰõkta hɛ/
dog bark be.PRS.3SG
'The dog barks.'

Order of Object and Verb = OV

/gʰãs hət̪ao/
Grass remove.IMP
'Remove the grass.'

Order of Noun and Postposition:

(Noun + Postposition)

/t̪ebəl pər kʰəɾe ho ʃao/
Table LOC stand be go.IMP
'Stand on the table.'

Order of Genitive and Noun:

(Genitive + Noun)

/mere hat/
1SG.GEN hand
'My hands'

Order of Adjective and Noun:

(Adjectiv + Noun)

/əccʰa ləɾka/
good boy
'The good boy'

Order of Adverb and Verb:

(Adverb + Verb)

/d^hire.se bɑ:t kəro/
Slowly talk do.IMP
'Speak slowly.'

Order of Auxiliaries and Main Verb:

(Auxiliaries follows Main Verb)

/mẽ cɪɾɪya dek^hta hũ/
1SG bird see be.PRS.1SG
'I see the bird.'

Order of Negation and Verb:

(Verb follows Negation)

/vəh kam nəhĩ ki hɛ/
3SG.F work NEG do be.3SG.F
'She has not done the work.'

Types of Sentences

The sentences observed from the present language variable can be categorized on the basis of formation (Simple, Complex and Compound) and on the basis of function (Declarative, Interrogative, Imperative and Exclamatory) as follows

On the Basis of Formation

Simple Sentence: A sentence made up of only one clause.

/mẽ cɪɾɪya dek^hta hũ/
1SG bird see be.PRS.1SG
'I see the bird.'

Complex Sentence: A sentence which has two or more clause of unequal rank.

/ʃo admi kəl məɾ gəya voh ek gayək t^ha/
REL man yesterday die go.PST COREL one singer be.PST.3SG
'The man who died yesterday was a singer.'

Compound Sentence: A sentence which has two or more clause of equal rank.

/dɪn mẽ kam kərẽ ɔɾ rɑ:t mẽ soyẽ/
Day LOC work do.IMP and night LOC sleep.IMP
'Work in the day and sleep at night.'

On the Basis of Function

Declarative Sentence: A sentence which expresses something in the form of answer or statement

/vəh kʰet pər ɟayega/
3SG field LOC go.FUT.3SG
'He will go to the field.'

Interrogative Sentence: A sentence which helps to ask or enquire something.

/ap kya kʰate hẽ/
2SG what eat be.PRS.2SG
'What do you eat?'

Imperative Sentence: A sentence which is used for advising, ordering, commanding, requesting etc.

/tumhari beṭi-ko bulao/
2SG.GEN daughter-DAT call.IMP
'Call your daughter.'

Exclamatory Sentence: A sentence which exclaims sudden feeling of surprise, liking, disliking etc

/tum kɪtna ləmbe ho/
2SG how tall be.2SG
'How tall you have grown!'

Phrases

A phrase is a syntactic structure which acts like a constituent of a sentence. It may be realised in Khari Boli as Noun Phrase (NP), Verb Phrase (VP), Adjectival Phrase (AP), Postpositional Phrase (PP) and Adverbial Phrase (AP) as follows

Noun Phrase: A word or group of words which has a nominal head.

/cətur lərkə/
NP
'The clever boy'

Verb Phrase: A word or group of words which has a verbal head.

/mẽ cɪɾɪya dekʰta hũ/
1SG VP
'I see the bird.'

Adjectival Phrase: A word or group of words which has an adjectival head.

/cətur ləɾka/
AP boy
'The clever boy'

Postpositional Phrase: A word or group of words which has a postpositional head.

/tebəl pər kʰəre ho ʃao/
PP stand be go.IMP
'Stand on the table.'

Adverbial Phrase: A word or group of words which has an adverbial head.

/vəh pər ke nice sota hɛ/
3SG AdvP sleep.HAB be.PRS.3SG
'He sleeps under the tree.'

Clauses

Clause is defined as a group of words which has a conjugated verb and its subject. The types of clause observed in Khari Boli are as follows

Main Clause: A clause which does not depend upon other clause to make a complete sentence.

/yəh voɦi admi hɛ ʃIsse mɛ̃ kəl mɪla tʰa/
PROX.SG COREL man AUX REL 1SG tomorrow meet be.PRS.1SG
'This is the man whom i met yesterday.'

Subordinate Clause: A clause which depends upon other clause to make a complete sentence.

/yəh voɦi admi hɛ ʃIsse mɛ̃ kəl mɪla tʰa/
PROX.SG COREL man AUX REL 1SG tomorrow meet be.PRS.1SG
'This is the man whom i met yesterday.'

Relative Clause: Subordinate clauses which begin with relative pronouns.

/yəh voɦi admi hɛ ʃIsse mɛ̃ kəl mɪla tʰa/
PROX.SG COREL man AUX REL 1SG tomorrow meet be.PRS.1SG
'This is the man whom i met yesterday.'

Correlative Clause: A Clause which begins with correlative pronoun.

/yəh voɦi admi hɛ ʃIsse mɛ̃ kəl mɪla tʰa/
PROX.SG COREL man AUX REL 1SG tomorrow meet be.PRS.1SG
'This is the man whom i met yesterday.'

The underlined clauses in above sentences are the examples of respective clauses.

Negation

Negation in Khari Boli is a morphosyntactic operation by which a lexical item denies or inverts the meaning of another lexical item or construction. This may be done by introducing a new negator (a lexical item which expresses negation) or by the process of inverting the meaning of preexisting lexical item as in follows

By Introducing a Negator

/yəh kʰane læk nəhI hɛ/
PROX.SG eat able NEG be.PRS
'This is not edible'

/mere pas kucʰ nəhI hɛ/
1SG near anything NEG be.PRS
'I have nothing with me.'

Causation

Causative is basically a form that a subject cause something or someone to do or be something and the process is known as causation or causativization. In Khari Boli causativization may be observed as follows

/mẽ panI ubalta hũ/
1SG water boil.CAUS.HAB be.PRS.1SG
'I boil water.'

/mẽ bæce-ko kʰilata hũ/
1SG child-DAT eat.CAUS.HAB be.PRS.1PL
'I feed the baby.'

Passivisation

Passivization is basically the transformation of a sentence from an active form to a passive form. The realization of passive sentences in Khari Boli may be observed as follows

/roṭi mere dwara kʰaya ja rəha hɛ/
Bread-ACC 1SG.DAT by eat.PASS go PROG be.PRS.1SG
'Bread is being eaten by me.'

/tumhara koṭ sllvaya ꣳa rəha hɛ/
2SG.GEN coat stich.PASS go PROG be.PRS.1SG
'Your coat is being stitched.'

6. CONCLUSION

In the foregoing discussion the detailed grammatical structure of Khari Boli has been presented with illustration based on collected data from field. According to the presentation the Khari Boli shares the features of Indo-Aryan language family

1. Phonological – Khari Boli natively possesses a symmetrical eleven-vowel system and has a core set of 38 consonants inherited from earlier Indo-Aryan. Supplementing these are two consonants that are internal developments in specific word-medial contexts. Voicing and Aspiration is a common feature of Khari Boli

2. Morphological - The Khari Boli verbal system is largely structured around a combination of aspect and tense/mood. Khari Boli has 3 aspects: perfective, habitual, and progressive, each having overt morphological correlates. Compound formation and Person-Number-Gender Concord in Finite Verb are other special features of Khari Boli.

3. Syntactical – Khari Boli is an inflectional language of Subject-Object-Verb construction having close proximity with Hindi and Awadhi. Subject precedes the direct object of the sentence if both the dative and the accusative case marks the objects of a sentence. Attributive adjectives precede the noun they qualify by default, but can also be placed after the noun and Negative markers (**nahī**, **na**, **mat**) and interrogatives precede the verb by default but can also appear after it.

Further, Khari Boli distinguishes itself lexically and grammatically as well as in its rich and varied literary diction which leaves the scope of treating Khari Boli as rich language in Indian Census.

7. TEXT

/do dost ek b^halu/
Two friends a bear

/ramu or sjamu do dost t^he/
Ramu and Shyamu two friend were

/unone ek dusrese vada kia t^ha be kisib^hi k^hətre-me sat^h rəheŋge/
They each other promised they any danger-LOC remain united

/ekdin be ʃəŋgəlte ʃa rəje t^he/
One day they forest were going

/samnese ek b^halu aja/
From in front one bear came

/b^haluko dek^h kəɾ dono dost bəθət dɔr geje/
Bear-aCC seeing two friend very became afraid

/ramu dɔrke mare peɾ-pəɾ cəɾe geja/
Ramu being afraid tree-LOC climbed up

/sjampəe peɾ-pe cəɾna nehi ata t^ha/
Shyam tree-LOC climbing not came

/bohe apni mittəɾ ramu-ko bola muhe peɾ-pəɾ cəɾna nehi ata həj
He own friend Ramu-aCC told to me tree-LOC climbing not come
kripəja meri mədət kərie/
please my help do

/pəɾ ramu-ne koi ʃəbab nehi dia/
But Ramu-NOM any answer not give

/duk^hi or majuk^h sjam ʃəmin-pəɾ apni sas rok kəɾ leɾ geja/
Sad and helpless Shyam ground-LOC own breathe stopping lied down

/ʃəldi ma b^halu a pɔoc^ha/
Quickly there bear reached

/ʃəmin-pəʀ ʃjam-ko leʃe dekʰ kəʀ uske pas gəja ɔr use suŋne
 Ground-LOC Shyam-aCC lied seeing his near went and him smelling
 laga/
 started

/kucʰder suŋneke bad ʃjam-ko cʰorkəʀ cəle gəja/
 Sometimes smelling after Shyam-aCC leaving went away

/peʃ-pəʀ bejʃʰe ramu-ko laga bʰalu ʃjamke kan-me kucʰu
 Tree-LOC sitting Ramu-aCC thought bear Shyam-GEN ear-LOC something
 bola/
 said

/bohe ʃəldise nice aja ɔr ʃjamse pucʰa dost mere bo bʰalu
 He quickly down came and Shyam-aBL asked friend my that bear
 tumhare kan-me kja bola/
 your ear-LOC what said

/ʃjam ʃəmin-se uʃʰa ɔr ramuko bola bo bʰalu bola muʃe
 Shyam ground-aBL got up and Ramu-aCC said that bear told me
 ʃʰuʃe ɔr svartʰi logõpəʀ bərosa mət kəro ʃo tume musibətme
 liar and selfish people-aCC trust not do who you in danger
 əkela cʰorke cəli ʃaje/
 alone leaving went away

/itna kejkəʀ ʃjam maha-se ekela cəl dia/
 This saying Shyam there-aBL alone went away

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MAINPURI

Dipshikha Bose

INTRODUCTION

Mainpuri is a mother tongue, returned by a number of people who inhabit mainly in Uttar Pradesh and Delhi. 'Firozabad' and 'Mainpuri' are the two main districts of Uttar Pradesh from where Mainpuri mother tongue has got its maximum return in Census. Though, apparently it seems to be 'a spurious return as mother tongue' (R.C. Nigam, 1971), the analysis of the recorded data shows that Mainpuri bears a very close resemblance with Hindi language of the Indo-Aryan language family.

As per R.C. Nigam (1971), the name 'Mainpuri' comes after the name of an earlier town called 'Mainpur' which later on became a separate district of Uttar Pradesh. A local tradition, however, associates the name of the present district with a town, Mainpur, which is supposed to have existed in the days of the Pandavas and been inhabited by Brahmanas until the arrival of the Chauhans. Another legend says that the name is derived from the story of 'Main Deo' who is said to have found his mother eating some rice in great haste on his wedding day. On being questioned about this unseemly hurry, she is said to have replied that in all likelihood that was her last chance of a square meal since her son was getting married. Main Deo was so grieved at this reply that he lay down and died. The story can be a fabricated one and Main Deo's image, which was perhaps one of the very old relics there and was once stood installed at Tal Daarwaza, in Nagaria (a suburb of the city) is no longer available as it was stolen away in 1970. Another tradition believes that the city has got its name from the name of Rishi Chaman Myan. Whatever may be the actual reason behind the name of the district, it is quite evident that the mother tongue has got its nomenclature after the name of the district.

Mainpuri anciently formed a part of the great kingdom of Kanauj and after the fall of the famous state, it was divided into a number of petty principalities, of which Rapri and Bhongaon were the chief. In 1194, Rapri was made the seat of Moslem governor. When this part of the country was ceded to the British in 1801, Mainpuri town became the headquarters of the extensive district of Etawah which in 1856 was reduced by the formation of Etah and Mainpuri into separate collectorates.

The data for the present survey has been collected from Firozabad, instead of Mainpuri district, since the population of 'Mainpuri' speakers was majorly found in Firozabad according to 2001 Census. This is the region where Braj Bhasha/ Braj Bhakha, one of the predominant mother tongues grouped under Hindi, is been widely spoken. Mainpuri is one of the small variants of Hindi language spoken commonly in this area, alongwith few other such variants which have been affiliated to Braj Bhasha/Braj Bhakha. This study aims towards a detailed description of such smaller groups and provide a proper linguistic description of Mainpuri which have been included under the wide language name 'Hindi' in Census .

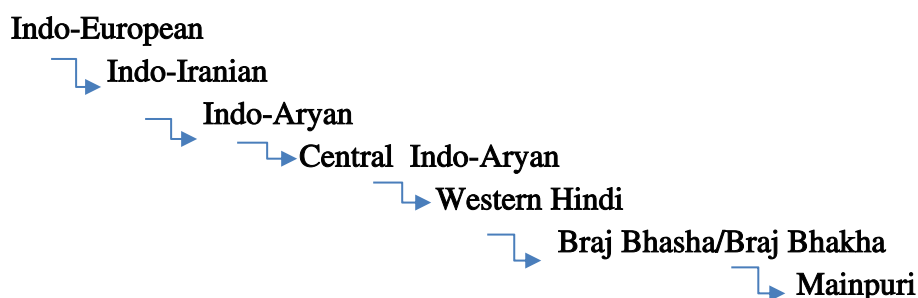
1.1 Family Affiliation

‘Mainpuri’ is the name of a mother tongue that belongs to the Indo-European family of languages and mainly spoken in the state of Uttar Pradesh. Apparently the mother tongue has got its name after the name of the then ‘Mainpuri’ town near Aligarh (U.P.). “The area being Brajbhasha speaking pre-dominantly Mainpuri speakers were grouped under Brajbhasha” (Nigam, 1971, p. 154). As per 1961 Census, there were 5 mother tongues including ‘Braj Bhasha/Braj Bhakha’ (both names were kept since returns against both names were recorded) which could be classified under ‘Braj Bhasha/Braj Bhakha’; they are ‘Bharatpuri’, ‘Braj Bhasha/Braj Bhakha’, ‘Mainpuri’, ‘Mathuri’ and ‘Pingal’. Out of these only Mainpuri was found to be a new name while the rest were found attested in the Linguistic Survey. ‘Mainpuri’ was returned from Uttar Pradesh and on enquiry individuals were found to have given the name of their district as mother tongue though they were ‘Braj Bhasha’ speakers (Mitra, 1961, p. ccxiii). So, Mainpuri has been classified with ‘Brajbhasha’.

In his ‘*Linguistics Survey of India*’, Sir G.A. Grierson had also attested ‘Braj Bhakha’ as one of the major dialects of Western Hindi along with ‘Bangaru’, ‘Kannauji’ and ‘Bundelkhandi’. Therefore, it will be appropriate to consider this classified mother tongue under Hindi with reference to these major dialect names.

Historically, ‘Braj Bhasha’ is spoken by the people of ‘Braj’ or ‘Braj Bhumi’ which consists of the parts of modern day Uttar Pradesh, Rajasthan, Haryana and Madhya Pradesh. From the point of view of origin ‘Braj Bhasha’, along with its other variants of Western Hindi like- Khari Boli, Bangaru, Kannauji and Bundeli is also associated to Shauroseni Apabhramsa and Prakrit. However, its linguistic characteristic varies in the individual states due to its contact with other languages of that area as in Uttar Pradesh it is highly influenced by ‘Kannauji’, in Rajasthan by ‘Dhundhari’ and in Madhya Pradesh by ‘Badrawahi’, ‘Sikarwari’, ‘Jandomati’ ‘Lodhghari’ etc. (Devy, 2022, Volume Twenty-Nine, Part II, p. 117) Here, the survey has been done in Uttar Pradesh hence, the variety spoken in that region will be studied in detail.

The family affiliation of Mainpuri mother tongue can be shown like this:



1.2 Location

At the time of Grierson's study under *LSI*, 'the typical dialect Braj Bhākhā' was spoken 'round Agra and Mathura' (Grierson, 1916, Vol. IX, Part I, p. xiii). As per 2001 Census data also the concentration of Mainpuri (that had been classified to Braj Bhasha) speaking population is seen in the Firozabad and Mainpuri districts of Uttar Pradesh which are adjacent to Agra and Mathura districts of the same.

For the present study, the data on 'Mainpuri' have been collected from Firozabad district of Uttar Pradesh since the population of 'Mainpuri' speakers was majorly found in Firozabad according to 2001 Census. The boundaries of this district touch Etah district in the north and Mainpuri and Etawah in the east and the Yamuna river makes its southern boundary. The area of district is about 0.8% of total area of U.P. and population is 1.1% of total population of Uttar Pradesh. Approximately 73.6% population is living in rural area.

Keeping the geographical surrounding in mind it can be said that the district lies in the cultural region of 'Braji' which formed a part of the Sursena Mahajanapad during the Vedic age. Therefore, all the smaller variants of this region have been tentatively classified to 'Braji Bhasha' and the mother tongue here under survey has to be studied in the light of all other prominent dialects of that region due to whose influence it varies from other Braji Bhasha variants of different states.

1.3 Socio-linguistic Information

'Mainpuri' (which has been classified to Braji Bhasha) exists as a dialect spoken colloquially by the natives of the Braji region of Uttar Pradesh. It is the vernacular of the region. Keeping this socio-linguistic fact as the background, the overall assessment of socio-linguistic implication of 'Mainpuri' in Uttar Pradesh state is presented in the form of following details based on the survey conducted in Uttar Pradesh in December, 2021 under 'LSI-Uttar Pradesh' project.

Language use in different domains-

a) Home - Mainpuri is predominantly used in home domain. Speakers use it to communicate with their family members including kith and kin both inside and outside of their home. However, when they go out of their native villages/towns, they use Hindi.

b) School - Mainpuri people prefer Hindi language as medium of instruction in school. Alongwith Hindi medium schools the schools with English as medium of instruction are also preferred by Mainpuri population.

c) Mass Media - As per the collected information in some cultural programmes covering songs, recitation or talks on socio-economic issues are telecast on television in local dialect but as far as journals and magazines are concerned they are published in Hindi.

- d) Administration & Judiciary - In Administration and Judiciary only Hindi is found to be used.
- e) Script – ‘Mainpuri’ is written in ‘Devnagari’ script.

1.4 Review of Earlier Works

We get the the first introduction of ‘Mainpuri’ in R.C. Nigam’s (1971) *‘Language Handbook on Mother Tongues in Census’* where it had been described as ‘a spurious return as mother tongue’ that has got its name after the name of the Mainpuri district of Uttar Pradesh. However, As per 1961 Census, it had been classified to ‘Braj Bhasha/Braj Bhakha’ alongwith 4 other mother tongues (i.e. ‘Bharatpuri’, ‘Braj Bhasha/Braj Bhakha’, ‘Mathuri’ and ‘Pingal’). ‘Braj Bhakha’ or ‘Braj Bhasha’ had a rich literay tradtion as it was the prominent literary vehicle for the poets of Krishna Cult. Most Braj literature is of mystical nature, related to the spiritual union of people with God, because almost all of the Braj Bhasha poets were considered God-realised saints and their words are thus considered as directly emanating from a divine source. However, these regional varities of Mainpuri exist mainly as a speech variety of native people and does not have any considerable amount of spoken or written literary tradition.

1.5 The Present Study: Base for Analysis

The present study is a humble attempt to give the detailed phonological, morphological and syntactic features of Mainpuri based on the field data collected from Firozabad district of Uttar Pradesh in December, 2021 under the ‘Linguistic Survey of India, Uttar Pradesh’ project. The names of the informant and interpreters are – Shri. Omkar Shakya and Smt. Upasna Shakya respectively.

Previously, ‘Mainpuri’ had been surveyed under ‘Mother Tongue Survey of India’ (MTSI) Project of the Ministry of Home Affairs, Govt. of India in 2013 from Firozabad, Uttar Pradesh. Eight different samples (variables) which are categorized on the basis of informant’s place, gender and age, have been collected in audio-visual form. The names of the informants are- Smt, Sarla Devi, Smt. Saral Devi, Shri. Ram Prasad, Shri. Rajkumar Yadav, Smt. Saroj Singh, Smt. Sarla Devi, Shri. Rajveer Singh and Shri. Amit Kumar. The persons who worked as the interpreters are – Shri. Kalicharan, Shri. Anil Kumar, Shri. Arvind Kumar, Shri. Sunil Kumar, Shri. Deepak Gupta, Shri. Ajay Mishra, Kumari Arita Singh and Shri. Smit Kumar.

Those data were given to different scholars from various universities of India to write an analytical report on each of the particular variable. The details of the scholars are as follows: Parvatbhai Bhemabhai Vadi, Deccan College, Pune; Raghawandra Singh Rajpoot, H.S.G. University, Sagar; Dipshikha Bose, University of Calcutta; Tultul Talukdar, University of Calcutta and Nivedita Mitra, University of Calcutta. Finally, all these eight analytical reports have been given to an eminent professor who has amalgamated all these sketchy reports into an exhaustive consolidation. The consolidated report of Mainpuri was written by Prof. A.R. Fatihi.

Moreover, a fresh survey has also been conducted in 2021 by our inhouse linguists inorder to supplement the MTSI survey results for preparing the Linguistic ‘Survey of India, Uttar Pradesh’ volume. The present report on Mainpuri for LSI, Uttar Pradesh volume has been prepared largely on the base of Prof. A.R. Fatihi’s consolidated report along with the findings derived from the fresh survey results.

2. PHONOLOGY

Phonology studies the sound systems of languages including the ways in which the sounds are organized and used in natural languages. It is concerned with the systematic organization of the speech sounds, known as ‘phonemes’ and involves the analysis of the phonetic and phonemic properties of the speech sounds as well the rules that govern their distribution and variation in different languages. Overall, it is a fundamental component of linguistic analysis that provides insight into the underlying structures and processes that shapes a language. On the basis of the collected data the phonological structure of Mainpuri Language has been given below.

2.1. Phonemic Inventory

Phonemic inventory refers to the set of sounds or phonemes that are organized and used to convey meaning in a particular language. The phonemic inventory of Mainpuri comprises of both segmental and supra-segmental phonemes.

2.1.1. Segmental Phonemes

(A) Vowels

A vowel is a speech sound, during the articulation of which, the lung-air escapes through the mouth without any friction or obstruction. The vowels are produced with the mouth and throat relatively open and unconstructed allowing the air to flow freely. There are **21** distinct vowel sounds in Mainpuri comprising of **10** pure vowels and **11** diphthongs.

(i) Pure Vowels or Monophthongs

A pure vowel, also known as monophthongs, is a vowel sound that is pronounced with a consistent and unchanging tongue position throughout its duration. Mainpuri has **10** pure vowel sounds out of which **4** are front, **1** is central and **5** are back. Most of the vowel sounds have their nasalized counterparts.

Vowel Chart

	Front	Central	Back
Close	i ɪ		u ʊ
Close-mid	e		o
Mid		ə	
Open-mid	ɛ		ɔ
Open			ɑ

Distribution of Vowel Sounds

Vowel	Initial		Medial		Final	
/ɪ/	---	---	/bimar/	‘sick’	/bɪʃri/	‘lightning’
			/pənɪr/	‘cheese’	/dʰərti/	‘earth’
			/gəlica/	‘carpet’	/dərʃi/	‘tailor’
/ɪ/	/ɪlɑʃo/	‘treatment’	/gʰərpərnɔr/	‘family’	/murtɪ/	‘idol’
	/ɪlɑjci/	‘cardamom’	/mɪrɡi/	‘epilepsy’	/ʃɔnrɪ/	‘barley’
	/ɪspat/	‘steel’	/lɔkacʰɪpi/	‘hide and seek’	/səmpəttɪ/	‘property’
/e/	/ek/	‘one’	/herən/	‘deer’	/mɔʰase/	‘pimple’
	/eʃi/	‘heel’	/nehora/	‘mongoose’	/piccanve/	‘ninety-five’
			/kəleʃa/	‘liver’	/ite/	‘here’
/ɛ/	---	---	/leʰer/	‘wave’	/cʰɛ/	‘six’
			/bʰɛjsa/	‘buffalo’	/baitəɛ/	‘towards’
			/gɛhenõ/	‘ornaments’	/kəbɛ/	‘when’
/ə/	/əndʰa/	‘blind’	/bəs/	‘bus’	/grəhə/	‘planet’
	/əndɑ/	‘egg’	/ləŋʃɑ/	‘cripple’	/muhə/	‘mouth’
	/əcar/	‘pickle’	/həra/	‘green’	/cʰatrə/	‘student’
/ɑ/	/ɑʃɑ/	‘flour’	/gɑʃər/	‘carrot’	/bərsa/	‘rain’
	/ɑŋocʰɑ/	‘towel’	/mali/	‘gardener’	/bəcca/	‘baby’
	/admi/	‘man’	/sɔnar/	‘goldsmith’	/ʃəkora/	‘axe’
/u/	/upər/	‘over’	/dʰur/	‘dust’	/baru/	‘sand’
	/usra/	‘desert’	/dʰup/	‘sunlight’	/bicʰu/	‘scorpion’
	/ukʰəri/	‘mortar’	/cuʰərə/	‘mouse’	/təmaku/	‘tobaccoo’
/ʊ/	/ɔnnis/	‘nineteen’	/kɔtta/	‘dog’	/calɔ/	‘clever’
	/ɔllu/	‘owl’	/sɔrəʃ/	‘sun’	/dəjalɔ/	‘kind’
	/ɔltʃi/	‘vomit’	/bidʰɔr/	‘widower’	/gʰɔʃtɔ/	‘knee’
/ɔ/	---	---	/ʃɔrɪa/	‘rope’	/nɔ/	‘nine’
			/gɔraɪa/	‘sparrow’	/sɔ/	‘hundred’
			/kohɔra/	‘fog’	/ʃarɔ/	‘cold’
/o/	/oʃʰ/	‘lip’	/pota/	‘grandson’	/kovaro/	‘bachelor’
	/os/	‘dew’	/lomʃi/	‘fox’	/ləmbo/	‘tall’
	/oʃʰɑ/	‘sorcerer’	/pokʰər/	‘pond’	/pɔrano/	‘old’

(ii) Vowel Glides or Diphthongs

A diphthong may be described as a *vowel glide*, i.e. the tongue first takes the position required for the articulation of a certain vowel and then moves (or glides) towards the position required for the articulation of another vowel. A vowel Glide, if it has to be called a diphthong, will have to occupy a single syllable. Mainpuri has 11 Diphthongs or Vowel glides. These are - /ɪə/, /əɪ/, /aɪ/, /əʊ/, /aʊ/, /ɔɪ/, /oɪ/, /oə/, /ou/, /ui/ and /ʊə/.

Distribution of vowel glides or Diphthongs

Diphthong	Initial		Medial		Final	
/ɪə/	---	---	/motɪəbɪnd/	‘cataract’	/ləkəɪə/	‘wood’
			/sɪəhi/	‘ink’	/nəɪə/	‘brook’
/əɪ/	---	---	/səɪnɪk/	‘soldier’	---	---
			/pəɪsə/	‘coin’		
/aɪ/	---	---	/baɪs/	‘twenty two’	/kəɪə/	‘wrist’
			/səfəɪtə/	‘neatly’	/dəʊə/	‘medicine’
/əʊ/	---	---	---	---	/gʰəʊə/	‘subtraction’
					/nəʊ/	‘boat’
/aʊ/	---	---	---	---	/nəʊ/	‘barber’
					/kʰəʊə/	‘wooden sandal’
/ɔɪ/	/ɔɪrət/	‘female’	/lɔɪki/	‘gourd’	---	---
	/ɔɪr/	‘and’	/mɔɪsi/	‘mother’s sister’		
/oɪ/	---	---	/rəʊɪgʰər/	‘kitchen’	/nəndɔɪ/	‘sister-in-law’s husband’
			/rəʊɪdər/	‘cook’		
/oə/	---	---	/ʝoə/	‘high tide’	---	---
			/soərg/	‘heaven’		
/ou/	---	---	/gouli/	‘marbles’	/pʰirou/	‘sill’
					/rou/	‘a kind of fish’
/ui/	---	---	/cʰuna/	‘to touch’	/sui/	‘needle’
					/rui/	‘cotton’
/ʊə/	---	---	/sʊər/	‘pig’	/bʊə/	‘father’s sister’
			/kədʊə/	‘pumpkin’	/kəcʰʊə/	‘tortoise’

(B) Consonants

A consonant is a speech sound that is produced by obstructing or constructing the lung-air in the vocal tract, creating friction. This is the point that distinguishes consonants from the vowels which are produced without obstruction or constriction of airflow. Mainpuri has 33 consonants including 2 approximant.

Consonant Chart

		Bilabial		Labio-dental		Dental		Alveolar		Palato-alveolar		Palatal		Retroflex		Velar		Glottal	
		vl	vd	vl	vd	vl	vd	vl	vd	vl	vd	vl	vd	vl	vd	vl	vd	vl	vd
Stop	Unaspirated	p	b			t	d			c	ɟ			ʈ	ɖ	k	g		
	Aspirated	p ^h	b ^h			t ^h	d ^h			c ^h	ɟ ^h			ʈ ^h	ɖ ^h	k ^h	g ^h		
Nasal			m						n								ŋ		
Fricative				f				s		ʃ								h	
Tap or Flap	Unaspirated							r							ɽ				
	Aspirated														ɽ ^h				
Lateral								l											
Approximants					ʋ								j						

Distribution of Consonants

Consonant	Initial		Medial		Final	
/p/	/pələtɳa/	‘to turn over’	/bæcpən/	‘childhood’	/d ^h up/	‘sunlight’
			/c ^h ɪpkəli/	‘lizard’	/sāp/	‘snake’
	/pina/	‘to drink’	/k ^h oɽɪ/	‘skull’	/b ^h ap/	‘steam’
	/pəhaɽ/	‘hill’				
/p ^h /	/p ^h əl/	‘fruit’	/mup ^h əli/	‘ground nut’	/sōp ^h /	‘aniseed’
	/p ^h oɽɳa/	‘to break’	/p ^h ep ^h ra/	‘lung’	/kəp ^h /	‘phlegm’
	/p ^h ugɳa/	‘to spit’	/kənp ^h əra/	‘snake charmer’	/ʈs tərəp ^h /	‘towards’
/b/	/bɛɽa/	‘brinjal’	/tāba/	‘copper’	/pesab/	‘urine’
	/bəɽica/	‘garden’	/b ^h abi/	‘brother’s wife’	/gəlab/	‘rose’
	/biɽ/	‘seed’	/sabɔn/	‘soap’	/kɪtab/	‘book’
/b ^h /	/b ^h ɪndɟi/	‘lady’s	/trib ^h uɽ/	‘triangle’	/ɟib ^h /	‘tongue’
	/b ^h əɽuən/	finger’	/cəb ^h na/	‘to prick’		
	/b ^h ɪɽ/	‘God’	/təb ^h əi/	‘till’		
		‘crowd’				

/t/	/taʃi/	‘fresh’	/pota/	‘grandson’	/rat/	‘night’
	/teʃ/	‘sharp’	/matapɪta/	‘parents’	/kʰet/	‘ground’
	/tagətbəɾ/	‘strong’	/tɪli/	‘butterfly’	/pərbət/	‘mountain’
/tʰ/	/tʰəliɑ/	‘plate’	/hətʰi/	‘elephant’	/hətʰ/	‘arm’
	/tʰana/	(metal)’	/nətʰni/	‘nose-ring’	/ənətʰ/	‘orphan’
	/tʰəkina/	‘police station’ ‘to tired’	/mɛjtʰi/	‘methi’	/pɪtʰ/	‘bile’
/d/	/dərvaʃɑ/	‘door’	/dada/	‘father’s father’	/həd/	‘turmeric’
	/divɑɾ/	‘wall’	/gəda/	‘club’	/dərd/	‘pain’
	/dal/	‘pulse’	/gidəɾə/	‘jackal’	/sənsəd/	‘parilament’
/dʰ/	/dʰona/	‘to wash’	/gədʰɑ/	‘donkey’	/dudʰ/	‘milk’
	/dʰərti/	‘earth’	/ʃəldʰɑra/	‘stream’	/jədʰ/	‘war’
	/dʰime/	‘slow’	/kəndʰɑ/	‘shoulder’	/bədʰ/	‘planet’
/c/	/cəttan/	‘cliff’	/caca/	‘father’s brother’	/moc/	‘sprain’
	/cəndrəm	‘moon’	/mɪrci/	‘chilli’	/cəmməc/	‘spoon’
	a/	‘ant’	/kēcəɑ/	‘earthworm’	/kalimɪrc/	‘black pepper’
/cʰ/	/cʰatrə/	‘student’	/aŋocʰɑ/	‘towel’	/məgərməc	‘crocodile’
	/cʰɛ/	‘six’	/lukacʰɪpi/	‘hide and seek’	h/	‘tail’
	/cʰilna/	‘to peel’	/bəcʰra/	‘calf’	/pũcʰ/	‘moustache’
					/mũcʰ/	’
/ʃ/	/ʃaɾe/	‘cold’	/təraʃu/	‘balance’	/ɑʃ/	‘today’
	/ʃəŋgəl/	‘forest’	/məʃdur/	‘labourer’	/roʃ/	‘daily’
	/ʃəɾva/	‘twin’	/səbʃi/	‘vegetable’	/avaʃ/	‘noise’
/ʃʰ/	/ʃʰil/	‘lake’	/buʃʰajna/	‘to extinguish’	— — —	— — —
	/ʃʰɪŋgɔɾ/	‘cockroach’	/murʃʰajg	‘faint’		
	/ʃʰəmka/	‘ear-ring’	o/	‘socerer’		
			/oʃʰɑ/			
/ɭ/	/ɭɪbi/	‘asthma’	/bʰɑɭɑ/	‘low tide’	/ɪɭ/	‘brick’
	/ɭopi/	‘cap’	/ɑɭɑ/	‘flour’	/ũɭ/	‘camel’
	/ɭidɭi/	‘locust’	/cimɭɑ/	‘tongs’	/ləɭɑɭ/	‘forehead’

/tʰ/	/tʰori/	‘chin’	/ətʰara/	‘eighteen’	/pitʰ/	‘back of
	/tʰəndʃ/	‘coldness’	/əŋguʃʰi/	‘ring’	/otʰ/	body’
	/tʰɛtʃ/	‘ear wax’	/bɛtʰna/	‘to take a seat’	/kɔʃtʰ/	‘lip’
						‘leprosy’
/dʃ/	/dʃəkɑr/	‘belch’	/əndʃɑ/	‘egg’	---	---
	/dʃəliɑ/	‘basket’	/ʃʰəndʃɑ/	‘flag’		
	/dʃakia/	‘postman’	/gilli dʃəndʃɑ/	‘gilli danda’		
			/			
/dʰ/	/dʰal/	‘slope’	/gəndʰmal/	‘goitre’	---	---
	/dʰəkkən/	‘lid’	/	‘room’		
	/dʰol/	‘drum’	/mədʰɑ/	‘toad’		
			/mɛdʰək/			
/k/	/kĩc/	‘mud’	/miʃuka/	‘toad’	/balək/	‘child’
	/kəŋkətʃ/	‘pebble’	/lətʃki/	‘girl’	/ʃōk/	‘leech’
	/kohɔrɑ/	‘fog’	/məka/	‘maize (corn)’	/nak/	‘nose’
/kʰ/	/kʰet/	‘ground’	/akʰri/	‘last’	/pəŋkʰ/	‘wing’
	/kʰəʃməl/	‘bug’	/bɔkʰar/	‘fever’	/ākʰ/	‘eye’
	/kʰəra/	‘pony’	/bikʰari/	‘beggar’	/dɔkʰ/	‘grief’
/g/	/gəʃrəia/	‘shepherd’	/gʰoʃagaʃi/	‘horse coach’	/pətəŋg/	‘kite’
	/guŋga/	‘dumb	/kaɡəʃ/	‘paper’	/bʰag/	‘division’
	/gɔssa/	(male)’	/karagar/	‘prison’	/ʃʰag/	‘foam’
		‘anger’				
/gʰ/	/gʰəʃao/	‘subtraction	/puʃagʰər/	‘worship’	/ʃəŋgʰ/	‘thigh’
	/gʰəʃi/	‘valley’	/kəŋgʰɑ/	‘comb’	/siŋgʰ/	‘horn’
	/gʰər/	‘family’	/gʰoŋgʰɑ/	‘snail’	/baɡʰ/	‘tiger’
/m/	/məʃʃi/	‘clay’	/sima/	‘boundary’	/ʃənəm/	‘birth’
	/mɔsəm/	‘weather’	/raʃinaɪma/	‘agreement’	/məʃhəm/	‘ointment’
	/mɔʃʃʰi/	‘fist’	/dʰime/	‘low (flame)’	/nim/	‘neem’
/n/	/nədia/	‘brook’	/nana/	‘mother’s father’	/herən/	‘deer’
	/nəti/	‘daughter’s	/pune/	‘full moon’	/kʰun/	‘blood’
	/nɔh/	son’	/pəsina/	‘sweat’	/kan/	‘ear’
		‘claw’				
/ŋ/	---	---	/kəŋkətʃ/	‘pebble’	/hiŋ/	‘asafoetida
			/ʃʰiŋri/	‘cricket (insect)’	/lɔŋ/	‘clove’

			/ləŋɾa/	‘limp’	/muŋ/	‘green gram’
/f/	/fisəlna/	‘to slip’	/səfed/	‘white’	/bəɾəf/	‘ice’
	/fəsəl/	‘harvest’	/tufan/	‘storm’	/təɾif/	‘praise’
	/felana/	‘to stretch’	/kɔfi/	‘coffee’		
/s/	/surəɟ/	‘sun’	/kʰəsɾa/	‘chicken pox’	/os/	‘dew’
	/səpəri/	‘betel nut’	/səsɔɾ/	‘father-in-law’	/əmaʋəs/	‘new moon’
	/sãɾ/	‘bull’	/ãsu/	‘tears’	/nəs/	‘vein’
/ʃ/	/ʃilpkar/	‘artisan’	/ɾikʃa/	‘rickshaw’	/dʰənɔʃ/	‘bow’
	/ʃikʃək/	‘teracher’	/nɪʃedʰ/	‘prohibition’	/kʰəɾgoʃ/	‘rabbit’
	/ʃikakai/	‘shikakai’	/ʃotɪʃi/	‘astrologer’	/deʃ/	‘country’
/h/	/hɪɟɾa/	‘eunuch’	/ləhɛɾ/	‘wave’	/gəʋah/	‘witness’
	/hɛɟa/	‘cholera’	/dulha/	‘bridegroom’	/bɪʋah/	‘marriage’
	/həɖɖi/	‘bone’	/cuha/	‘rat’	/məllah/	‘boatman’
/ɾ/	/rekʰ/	‘ash’	/əndʰɛɾa/	‘darkness’	/teɾ/	‘oil’
	/rogi/	‘patient’	/gəɾmi/	‘heat’	/əcaɾ/	‘pickle’
	/ɾəsoiɡʰɛɾ/	‘kitchen’	/səʋɛɾa/	‘dawn’	/ʃanʋɛɾ/	‘beast’
/ɾʰ/	---	---	/oɾɛ/	‘hailstone’	/həɾɛɾ/	‘myrobalan’
			/kɛkɾa/	‘crab’	/peɾ/	‘tree’
			/kiɾa/	‘worm’	/moɾ/	‘fold’
/ɾʰ/	---	---	/kəɾʰəia/	‘pan’	/baɾʰ/	‘flood’
			/bəɾʰəi/	‘carpenter’	/meɾʰ/	‘sheep’
			/piɾʰa/	‘wooden seat’	/ənpəɾʰ/	‘illiterate’
/l/	/ləhsən/	‘garlic’	/gɪlhəɾia/	‘squirrel’	/la/	‘red’
	/lɪpɪk/	‘clerk’	/kojla/	‘coal’	/ʃəŋgəl/	‘forest’
	/ləmbo/	‘tall’	/sala/	‘wife’s brother’	/pʰul/	‘flower’
/ʋ/	/ʋəhã/	‘there’	/həʋa/	‘air’	/seʋ/	‘apple’
	/ʋəkilo/	‘advocate’	/bɪdʰʋa/	‘widow’	/paʋ/	‘quarter’
	/ʋəʃano/	‘weight’	/dəʋa/	‘medicine’	/təʋ/	‘then’
/j/	/judʰ/	‘war’	/dəja/	‘mercy’	/nɪɾdəj/	‘cruel’
	/jahãko/	‘to it’	/ikjasi/	‘eighty one’	/pəɾaʃəj/	‘defeat’

/jad kərna/	‘to remember’	/mɪʈana/	‘to erase’	/caj/	‘tea’
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Note: In Mainpuri /f/ sound is found in the loan words from English and Persian (including the words that Persian itself borrowed from Arabic and Turkish). are represented by using these sounds. This sound officially exists in Hindi also and modified Devanagari character is available to represent it i.e. - ‘फ़’ /f/. The same pattern is also followed in Mainpuri also. A diacritic mark called Nuqta (.) is introduced in Devanagari script to represent the sounds that are not present in the original script. It takes the form of a dot placed below a character and the idea is inspired from the Arabic script. For example – फ़र्श /fəɾʃ/ ‘floor’; मरीज़ /məɾiz/ ‘patient’ etc.

Allophonic Variation of Consonants

Allophones are the contextual variants of the same phoneme which are pronounced in different ways, depending on its position in a word, its surrounding sounds and other phonological factors. These allophonic variations are often influenced by the factors such as the sounds that come before and after it and the speaker’s regional accent etc.

- In Mainpuri, retroflex /ʂ/ occurs as a phonologically conditioned allophone of alveolar /ʃ/ where it is followed by the homorganic stop sounds. For example:

Mainpuri Word	Gloss	Phonemic Transcription	Phonetic Transcription (allophonic)
कुष्ठ	‘leprosy’	/kʊʃtʰ/	[kʊʂtʰ]
दुष्ट	‘wicked’	/duʃt/	[dʊʂt]

- In Mainpuri, retroflex /ɳ/ occurs as a phonologically conditioned allophone of alveolar /n/ where it is followed by the homorganic stop sounds. For example:

Mainpuri Word	Gloss	Phonemic Transcription	Phonetic Transcription (allophonic)
झंडा	‘flag’	/ʒʰəndʌ/	[ʒʰəɳdʌ]
भिंडी	‘lady’s finger’	/bʰɪndi/	[bʰɪɳdi]

Consonant Sequence

A consonant sequence refers to two or more consonant sounds that occur together without an intervening vowel sound. Consonant sequences are a very common feature in many languages and they can occur within a syllable as well as across syllable boundaries. Different

languages have different rules governing which consonant can occur together in a sequence while others are rare and non-existent. There are generally two types of consonant sequences available in a language – (i) Homogeneous Consonant Sequence and (ii) Heterogeneous Consonant Sequence.

(i) Homogeneous Consonant Sequence

A Homogeneous consonant sequence refers to a sequence of two or more consonants (without an intervening vowel sound) that share the same place and manner of articulation. In other words, all the consonants in the sequence are produced by using the same part of the mouth cavity and in the same manner. Distribution of Homogeneous consonant sequences of Mainpuri are as follows:

Consonant Sequence	Initial		Medial		Final	
/pp/	---	---	/t ^h əppər/	‘to slap’	---	---
			/cəppu cəlana/	‘to paddle’		
/bb/	---	---	/dʌbbɔ/	‘box’	---	---
			/bərəbbər/	‘equal’		
/mm/	---	---	/cəmməc/	‘spoon’	---	---
			/himmət/	‘courage’		
/tt/	---	---	/ɔttər/	‘north’	---	---
			/kɔtta/	‘dog’		
/dd/	---	---	/gədda/	‘mattress’	---	---
			/kəddu/	‘pumpkin’		
/nn/	---	---	/pənna/	‘emerald’	---	---
			/ɔnnis/	‘nineteen’		
/cc/	---	---	/bəcca/	‘child’	---	---
			/kəcca/	‘raw’		
/ʃʃ/	---	---	/beɪʃʃəti/	‘insult’	---	---
			/ləʃʃə/	‘shame’		
/tʃ/	---	---	/mətʃi/	‘clay’	---	---
			/cəʃʃən/	‘cliff’		
/dɔ/	---	---	/həɔdɔi/	‘bone’	---	---

			/sidqi/	‘staircase’		
/kk/	---	---	/dʰəkkən/ /ikkis/	‘lid’ ‘twentyone’	---	---
/gg/			/ləkəɽbəggə/ /bəggi/	‘hyena’ ‘cart’		
/ss/	---	---	/gəssa/ /səssa/	‘rage’ ‘mustard’	---	---
/ll/	---	---	/əllu/ /bəlla/	‘owl’ ‘bat’	---	---

(i) Heterogeneous Consonant Sequence

A Heterogeneous Consonant Sequence refers to a sequence of two or more consonants (without an intervening vowel sound) that belong to different phonetic classes or articulatory manners. In other words, a heterogeneous consonant sequence is a sequence in which the consonants have different manners of articulation or point of articulation. Distribution of Heterogeneous consonant sequences of Mainpuri are as follows:

Consonant Sequence	Initial		Medial		Final	
/mp/	---	---	/təmpu/ /cəmpa/	‘taxi’ ‘a kind of flower’	/bʰukəmp/	‘earthquake’
/mb/	---	---	/təmbu/ /ləmbo/	‘tent’ ‘long’	/bəmb/ /kʰəmb/	‘bomb’ ‘pillar’
/nt/	---	---	/əntimə/ /əntis/	‘last’ ‘twenty nine’	/sant/	‘sober’
/ntr/	---	---	/məntri/ /səɽəjəntɾə/	‘minister’ ‘conspiracy’	---	---
/nd/	---	---	/candi/ /məndɾ/	‘silver’ ‘temple’	/gend/ /moɽɪəbɪnd/	‘ball’ ‘cataract’
/ndʰ/	---	---	/andʰi/ /əndʰəɽə/	‘storm’ ‘darkneess’	/gondʰ/ /bəɽubəndʰ/	‘gum’ ‘armlet’

/nd/	---	---	/b ^h indʒi/	'lady's finger'	/ʃ ^h und/	'group'
			/ʃ ^h endʒa/	'flag'		
/ŋk/	---	---	/kəŋkəʃ/	'pebble'	/dəŋk	'to sting (as
			/noʃəŋki/	'acting'	maɪna/	a bee)'
/ŋk ^h /	---	---	/pəŋk ^h o/	'feather'	/pəŋk ^h /	'wing'
			/pəŋk ^h oɾia/	'petal'	/səŋk ^h /	'conch'
/ŋg/	---	---	/ʃəŋgəl/	'forest'	/pətəŋg/	'kite'
			/məŋgəl/	'name of a planet'		
/ŋg ^h /	---	---	/g ^h əŋg ^h a/	'snail'	/ʃəŋg ^h /	'thigh'
			/kəŋg ^h a/	'comb'	/sɪŋg ^h /	'horn'
/tɾ/	/tɾɪb ^h uʃ/	'triangle'	/k ^h ətɾa/	'danger'	---	---
			/c ^h ətɾi/	'umbrella'		
/dɾ/	/dɾɪʃtɪ/	'sight'	/ɪndɾəd ^h ənuːs/	'rainbow'	---	---
	/dɾɪʃ ^h	'to	/cək ^h mundɾa/	'small bat'		
	rəhəna/	'persist'				
/pɾ/	/pɾəkɾətɪ/	'nature'	/gɾəhəpɾəbes/	'housewarming	---	---
	/pɾat ^h na	'to pray'		ceremony'		
	kəɾna/		/səpɾi/	'guava'		
/br/	/brəhəspɪt/	'jupiter'	/ənt ^h bɾəd ^h ɪ/	'hernia'	---	---
	/brəs/	'brush'	/əbɾəkə/	'mica'		
/st/	---	---	/ʊstəɾa/	'razor'	/dost/	'friend'
			/bɪstəɾ/	'bed'	/dəst/	'diarrhea'
/st ^h /	/st ^h anantəɾɪ	'to move	/ɪst ^h apna/	'foundation'	/svast ^h /	'health'
	t kəɾna/	(a				
		object)'				

2.1.2. Phonemic Contrast

Phonemic contrast refers to the minimal phonemic difference between two almost identical words due to the difference of a distinctive sound or phoneme that serves to

distinguish the words from each other. These phonemes are usually perceived as separate and distinct units of sound by the native speakers of a particular language and changing one phoneme for another can change the meaning of the words. These set of words that differ from each other by only one phoneme (or two phonemes in case of ‘Sub-Minimal Pairs’) are called ‘Minimal Pairs’ and they are used to demonstrate the phonemic contrast of a language, as they show how by changing one phoneme the meaning of a word can be changed. Minimal Pairs can be very useful to establish the phonemic inventory of a language as they help to identify the sounds that are phonemically contrastive in a language.

Phonemic Contrast in Vowels

Vowels are the fundamental component of the sound system of any language and the phonemic contrast in vowels is very crucial for establishing the vowel phonemes of a particular language. Mainpuri has a rich vowel system with 10 vowels some of which can be short or long. Length of vowels is phonemic in Mainpuri which means that changing one vowel for another can change the meaning of the word.

Vowels in Contrast	Word	Gloss	Word	Gloss
/a/ ~ /i/	/pota/	‘grandson’	/poti/	‘granddaughter’
/ɪ/ ~ /ʊ/	/ɪdʰər/	‘here’	/ʊdʰər/	‘there’
/ə/ ~ /o/	/dəst/	‘diarrhea’	/dost/	‘friend’
/ə/ ~ /u/	/pʰəl/	‘fruit’	/pʰul/	‘flower’
/e/ ~ /ɛ/	/bel/	‘bel (sriphal)’	/bɛl/	‘bull’
/ɔ/ ~ /o/	/sɔl/	‘shwal’	/sol/	‘year’

Phonemic Contrast in Consonants

Phonemic contrasts among consonants is the distinction in meaning that is created by the substitution of one consonant sound or phoneme for another. Specific phonemic contrasts among the consonants of a particular language are very important part of that language’s sound system and contribute a lot to its uniqueness. Different languages have different set of consonants and different phonemic contrasts among them. For example, some languages may have a contrast between voiced and voiceless consonants, such as the contrast between /p/ and /b/ in English; other languages may have a phonemic contrast between aspirated and unaspirated consonants such as the contrast between /p/ and /pʰ/ in Hindi. Phonemic contrasts among the consonants of Mainpuri mother tongue are as follows:

Consonants in Contrast	Word	Gloss	Word	Gloss
/p/ ~ /ɾ/	/pani/	‘water’	/ɾani/	‘queen’
/pʰ/ ~ /t/	/pʰoɾna/	‘to break (a pot)’	/toɾna/	‘to break (a stick)’

/b/ ~ /s/	/bal/	‘hair’	/sal/	‘year’
/k ^h / ~ /t ^h /	/k ^h ana/	‘food’	/t ^h ana/	‘police station’
/g/ ~ /d/	/gost/	‘flesh’	/dost/	‘friend’
/d ^h / ~ /t/	/ad ^h a/	‘half’	/at̪a/	‘flour’
/b ^h / ~ /g ^h /	/b ^h at̪i/	‘low tide’	/g ^h at̪i/	‘valley’
/c/ ~ /g/	/car/	‘four’	/gar/	‘cheek’
/j/ ~ /t̪/	/baj/	‘him’	/bat̪/	‘flood’
/m/ ~ /t/	/mala/	‘garland’	/tala/	‘lock’
/t ^h / ~ /t̪/	/ʈ ^h na/	‘to get up’	/ʈ̪na/	‘to fly’
/d̪/ ~ /c ^h /	/d̪ãt̪na/	‘to scold’	/c ^h ãt̪na/	‘to trim’
/d̪ ^h / ~ /l/	/d̪ ^h al/	‘slope’	/lal/	‘red’
/v/ ~ /k/	/nav/	‘boat’	/nak/	‘nose’
/t ^h / ~ /l/	/pi ^h t̪a/	‘wooden seat’	/pila/	‘yellow’
/n/ ~ /ŋ/	/sɔnna/	‘to hear’	/sɔŋna/	‘to smell’
/h/ ~ /ʃ/	/hira/	‘diamond’	/ʃira/	‘cumin seed’
/ʃ ^h / ~ /k ^h /	/ʃ ^h op̪ti/	‘hut’	/k ^h op̪ti/	‘skull’
/f/ ~ /t/	/saf/	‘clean’	/sat/	‘seven’
/ʃ/ ~ /l/	/ʃɛhɛr/	‘city’	/lɛhɛr/	‘wave’

2.1.3 Supra-Segmental Phonemes

Supra-Segmental phonemes, also known as prosodic features or supra-segmentals refers those aspects of speech that extend over multiple phonemes or syllables. The supra-segmental features are generally phonemic in nature i.e. they can change the meaning of a word or sentence of a particular language.

(A) Length of Vowel

The length of vowel refers to the duration of its sound. Vowels can be either short or long and the length of vowel can be a phonemic feature in some languages, meaning that it can distinguish words with different meanings. This phenomenon can be explained with the help of several pair of vowels where the only difference between the words of each pair is the length of the vowel.

Vowels in Contrast	Word	Gloss	Word	Gloss
/ɪ/ ~ /i/	/sari/	‘saree’	/sari/	‘wife’s sister’
/ʊ/ ~ /u/	/bəhʊ/	‘many’	/bəhu/	‘daughter-in-law’

Distribution of these short and long pair of vowels has already been shown in the section 2.1.1. under the heading of ‘Distribution of Vowels’.

(B) Nasalization

Nasalization of vowels is a phonetic feature that occurs when lung-air is allowed to flow through the nasal cavity during the production of a vowel sound. In other words, nasalization happens when a vowel is pronounced with the velum (soft palate) lowered, allowing the air to escape through the nose while the sound is being produced. This phenomenon can be explained with the help of several pair of vowels where the only difference between the words of each pair is the nasalized vowel. For example:

Vowels in Contrast	Word	Gloss	Word	Gloss
/a/ ~ /ã/	/sas/	‘mother-in-law’	/sās/	‘breath’

Distribution of Nasalized Vowels:

Vowel	Initial		Medial		Final	
/i/	/ĩt/	‘brick’	/kĩc/	‘mud’	/jəhĩ/	‘here only’
/ẽ/	— — —	— — —	/kẽcɔa/	‘earthworm’	/ʃorẽ/	‘by’
/ẽ/	— — —	— — —	/b ^h ẽs/	‘buffalo’	/c ^h ĩkẽ/	‘sneeze’
/ã/	— — —	— — —	/hãsna/	‘to laugh’	— — —	— — —
/ũ/	/ũt/	‘camel’	/k ^h ũtj/	‘peg’	/gehũ/	‘wheat’
/õ/	/õt ^h /	‘lip’	/sõt ^h ə/	‘dry ginger’	/kəlidõ/	‘watermelon’
/ĩ/	— — —	— — —	/g ^h ĩtɔ/	‘knee’	— — —	— — —
/ã/	/ãk ^h /	‘eye’	/dãt/	‘tooth’	/vəhã/	‘there’

2.2. Syllabic Pattern

The syllabic patterns refer to the specific agreement and organization of syllables within a word. It involves analyzing the number of syllables, type of syllables (such as open or closed) and the patterns of stress and rhythm. The syllabic patterns found in Mainpuri words are; monosyllabic, disyllabic, tri-syllabic and polysyllabic as follows;

Monosyllabic Pattern

	Pattern	Example	
i)	VC	/ĩt/	‘brick’
ii)	CV	/g ^h i/	‘ghee’
iii)	CVV	/mai/	‘mother’s brother’s wife’
iv)	CVC	/dal/	‘dal (pulse)’
v)	VCV	/alu/	‘potato’

Disyllabic Pattern

	Pattern	Example	
i)	CV-CV	/cini/	‘sugar’
ii)	CV-CVC	/divar/	‘wall’
iii)	CVC-CVC	/ləhsən/	‘garlic’
iv)	CVC-CV	/ʃ ^h opti/	‘hut’

Tri-syllabic Pattern

	Pattern	Example	
i)	CVV-CVC-CV	/nɔʊtəŋki/	‘village show’
ii)	CV-CV-CV	/supari/	‘betelnut’
iii)	CVC- CV- CV	/ʃɜrmana/	‘penalty’
iv)	CVC-CVC-CV	/mombətti/	‘candle’
v)	CVCC-CVC-CVC	/səŋgmərmər/	‘marble’

Polysyllabic Pattern

	Pattern	Example	
i)	CV-CV-CV-CV	/g ^h oɾaɾaɾi/	‘horse coach’
iii)	CVC-CV-CVC-CV	/gilliɖəndə/	‘gilli danda’
iii)	CV-CV-CV-CV-CV-CV	/berəhəmite/	‘cruely’

3. MORPHOPHONEMICS

Morpho-phonemics is a branch of linguistics that studies the interactions between morphological and phonological processes in a language. It focuses on the ways in which meaning and function of words are influenced by their phonological structure and how phonological processes can shape the morphemic structure of words. Overall, this is an important area of linguistic study as it provides insights into how the sound system and the minimum meaningful units (morphemes) of a language interact with each other. There are few examples how morpho-phonemics operates in Mainpuri. These are as follows:

(A) Assimilation:

Assimilation is a phonological process where a sound in a word changes its phonetic properties due to the influence of its neighbouring sound and whenever it happens across word or morpheme boundaries and causes a difference in meaning it becomes a morphophonemic change. It involves the alteration of a phoneme to become more similar to its neighbouring phoneme, either in terms of place of articulation, manner of articulation. Examples from Mainpuri are as follows:

Word/ Prefix	Gloss		Word	Gloss		Compound Word	Gloss
/ek/	‘one’	+	/bis/	‘twenty’	=	/ikkis/	‘twenty-one’
/ʊn/	‘one less than’	+	/bis/	‘twenty’	=	/ʊnnis/	‘nineteen’

Here, in the above examples, the preceding sounds (/k/ and /n/ respectively) have influenced the sound /b/ and have assimilated it into identical sounds. As a result, /ek-bis/ becomes /ikkis/ and /ʊn-bis/ becomes /ʊnnis/.

(B) Deletion:

Deletion is a phonological process that involves the omission or removal of a sound segment, such as a consonant or vowel, from a word. In this process, a sound that would normally be pronounced is dropped or not produced at all and that causes change in the morphemic level. Deletion is a very common process in many languages and can occur due to various reasons, such as simplifying speech, reducing effort in pronunciation or conforming to specific phonological rules.

In Mainpuri, ‘deletion’ is an important morpho-phonemic phenomenon which is generally found in the ‘tadbhava’ words that have originated from Sanskrit language. The Sanskrit words that have retained their exact forms are called the ‘tatsama’ words, whereas, the words that have undergone some changes in pronunciation as well as orthography over time but still retain their Sanskrit roots are called the ‘tadbhava’ words. In Mainpuri some instances

have been found where this ‘deletion’ process has been operated on the ‘tatsama’ words in order to get their ‘tadbhava’ counterparts. As in the following examples word medial /h/ that was there in the Sanskrit words, has been deleted in their ‘tadbhava’ forms.

Sanskrit Form (tatsama)	Gloss	Intermediate Stage	Mainpuri Form (tadbhava)
/ʃəlhəʃ/	‘wife’s brother’s wife’	/sərhəʃ/	/səreʃ/
/kṛmbʰar/	‘potter’	/kṛmhār/	/kumar/

(C) Alteration

Alteration is morphophonemic process where a morpheme undergoes a change in its internal structure or form due to certain phonological or morphological factors. This process involves modifications in the morpheme’s phonological shape and may or may not cause meaning difference. Examples from Mainpuri are as follows:

- In some cases, number distinction is realized through Alteration of Vowel -

Vowels	Singular	Plural
/a/ → /e/	/bācca/ ‘child’	/bācce/ ‘children’
	/gʰoṛa/ ‘horse’	/gʰoṛe/ ‘horses’

- In some cases, gender distinction is realized through Alteration of Vowel -

Vowels	Singular	Plural
/a/ → /e/	/dada/ ‘father’s father’	/dadi/ ‘father’s mother’
	/pota/ ‘son’s son’	/poti/ ‘son’s daughter’

4. MORPHOLOGY

Morphology is a branch of linguistic studies that deals with the study of words, their internal structure, and the way they are formed and related to each other in a language. It is concerned with the analysis of the smallest meaningful units of language, called morphemes and the rules that govern their combination to form words. Morphology is a very crucial area of linguistic studies as it examines how morphemes are combined to form different types of words and also deals with the changes that occur within words to indicate different grammatical categories.

4.1. Word Formation Process

Word formation process refers to the ways in which new words are created or formed in language. It involves the application of various morphological rules and processes to existing words or parts of words to generate new lexical items that are recognized by the speakers of the language. Different languages have their own unique word formation processes and rules that speakers use to create new words. The common word formation processes present in Mainpuri are as follows:

A) Affixation

Affixation is morphological process in which a bound morpheme, called an affix, is added to a base or root word to create a new word or a word with a different meaning or function. An affix can be either a prefix which is attached to the beginning of a base word or a suffix which is added to the end of the base word.

Prefixation in Mainpuri

Prefix	Base Word			New Word		
/ɔn-/	+	/bis/	‘twenty’	=	/ɔnnis/	‘nineteen’
/be-/	+	/ɪʃʃət/	‘respect’	=	/beɪʃʃətɪ/	‘insult’

Suffixation in Mainpuri

Base Word		Suffix		New Word	
/cor/	‘thief’	+	/-i/	= /cori/	‘theft’
/āk ^h /	‘eye’	+	/-ẽ/	= /āk ^h ẽ/	‘eyes’

B) Compounding

Compounding is a word formation process in which two or more words are combined together to create a new word. In this process, the individual words are called constituent elements and the newly created word is called the compound. The following word will exemplify compounding as a word formation process in Mainpuri.

Noun			Noun		Compound Word
/g ^h oɽɑ/	‘horse’	+	/gaɽi/	‘vehicle’	= /g ^h oɽagaɽi/ ‘horsecoach’
Adjective			Noun		Compound Word
/kali/	‘black’	+	/mirc/	‘chilli’	= /kalimirc/ ‘black pepper’

C) Borrowing

Borrowing is a word formation process in which words are borrowed or adopted from one language into another. When a word is borrowed, it is often adopted to fit the phonological, morphological and syntactic rules of the borrowing language and thus it has been nativized in that particular language. Few examples of borrowed words from Mainpuri language are cited below:

Source Language	Word
English -	/kɔfi/ ‘coffee’
Persian/Arabic -	/səfed/ ‘white’

4.2. Word Class

Word Class, also known as parts of speech, refers to a set of words that display the same formal properties, especially in their inflections and distribution. This is a grammatical category that classifies words based on their syntactic and semantic role in a sentence. The word classes that have been realized in Mainpuri are as follows:

Noun

Noun is a type of word class that represents a person, place, thing or concept. It is the most commonly found word class in any language and can be inflected to indicate grammatical categories such as number, gender and case.

Examples-	/ciɽɑ/	‘bird’
	/kələm/	‘pen’

Pronoun

Pronouns are that type of word that can be used to replace or refer to a noun. Pronouns may be Personal, Demonstrative, Relative, Interrogative and Reflexive in nature.

Examples-	/təm/	‘you’
	/təm kʰəd/	‘yourself’

Verb

Verb is a type of word class that typically expresses an action, event or state of being. Verbs can be used to describe a wide range of actions or occurrences from physical movements to mental processes. Verbs can also be inflected to indicate the tense, aspect or mood of a sentence.

Examples-	/kaʈna/	‘to bite’
	/pina/	‘to drink’

Adjective

An adjective is a word class that describes or modifies a noun or pronoun by providing additional information about its qualities, characteristics or attributes.

Examples-	/bʰari/	‘heavy’
	/əccʰo/	‘good’

Adverb

An adverb is a word that modifies or describes a verb, adjective or other adverbs. Adverbs typically provide information about the manner, time, frequency, degree or place of an action.

Examples-	/səfaite/	‘neatly’
	/səbero/	‘morning’

Postposition

A postposition is a type of grammatical particle that is placed after a noun or pronoun to indicate its grammatical relationship with another element in the sentence. Postpositions are similar to prepositions which are placed before a noun or pronoun, but they are used in different languages.

Examples-	/pe/	‘on’
	/mẽ/	‘in’

Conjunction

A conjunction is a word class that connects words, phrases, clauses or sentences. Conjunctions can be used to express relationships between different elements in a sentence, such as addition, contrast, cause and effect etc.

Examples-	/ɔɔɾ/	‘and’
	/əgəɾ/	‘if’

Interjection

Interjection is a word class that expresses some kind of emotions or sentiment in a sentence. There is no clear-cut evidence of interjection in Mainpuri. Intonation plays an important role here. The emotion is expressed by the speaker with the help of intonation.

Example-	/təm	kitte	ləmbe	hɛ	gɛ/
	2SG	how	tall	be	go.PST
	‘How tall you have grown!’				

Decline and Indeclinable Word Classes

These Mainpuri word classes can be broadly divided into two that is declinable and indeclinable categories, depending upon the nature of their own. Those word class which decline for number, gender, person etc. are referred to as Declinable category; for example, Noun, Pronoun, Adjective and Verb. And those which do not decline for number, gender, person etc. fall under the indeclinable category; for example; Postposition, Conjunction, Adverbs and Participle.

4.3. Noun Morphology

Noun is a member of the word class that includes words which refer to people, places, things, ideas, or concepts and whose members may act as any of the followings: subjects of the verb, objects of the verb, indirect object of the verb, or object of a preposition or postposition. Noun Morphology deals with the forms and classification of Nouns, Pronouns and their declensional/ inflectional pattern in association with Gender, Number, and Adjective etc. The nouns in the language are marked by two numbers (singular and plural), two genders (i.e. masculine, and feminine); and seven cases (nominative, accusative, dative, ablative, genitive, locative and instrumental).

4.3.1. Internal Structure

The internal structure of nouns includes two main components: the base or root word and any affixes (if any) added to it. Based on the internal structure of noun, it can be categorized into two broad classes, namely, (A) Basic Nouns and (B) Derived Nouns.

(A) Basic Nouns

Basic Nouns are those which are a word class by themselves and are not derived from any other word class.

Example:	/rek ^h /	‘ash’
	/k ^h et/	‘ground’

The Basic Nouns can be further divided into i) Countable Noun and ii) Uncountable Noun.

i) Uncountable Noun

An Uncountable Noun, also known as mass noun, refers to a noun that cannot be counted or quantified by a number. They are always in singular form.

Example:	/ter/	‘oil’
	/gərmɪ/	‘heat’

ii) Countable Noun

A Countable Noun refers to a noun that can be counted or qualified by a number and which can take some suffixes for indicating plurality.

Example:	/lɔɪ/	‘boy’
	/peɪ/	‘tree’

(B) Derived Noun

A noun that contains more than one morpheme by means of its root taking one or more affixes is called a Derived Noun. It refers to all those nouns which are derived from the same or any other word class. Derived Nouns are formed in two ways – i) By adding suffixes to other words or ii) By Compounding Words.

i) **By adding suffixes to other words**

Root/ Base Word			Suffix		New Word	
/ʃəŋgəl/	‘forest’	+	/-i/	=	/ʃəŋgli/	‘wild’
/maŋg/	‘demand’	+	/-na/	=	/maŋgna/	‘to ask for’

ii) **By Compounding Words**

Word			Word		Compound Word	
/rel/	‘rail’	+	/gaɾi/	‘vehicle’	= /relgaɾi/	‘train’
/hat ^h /	‘hand’	+	/kəɾi/	‘cuff’	= /hat ^h kəɾi/	‘handcuff’

4.3.2. External Structure

External structure of nouns is very important to understand in order to use it correctly in a sentence and to modify it appropriately with other words. Number, Gender and Case are very important external structures of noun as they affect the ways it modifies the other lexical categories in a sentence as well as the way sentences are constructed to convey a particular meaning.

(A) Number

Number is a grammatical category which is morphologically marked at the noun or noun phrase. In nominal inflections there are generally two morphologically marked numbers i.e. Singular and Plural (some languages can have ‘dual’ number). Singular is the default value for number which is generally left unmarked and plurality is marked by affixing plural markers to the base form. The detailed description of the number system in Mainpuri is as follows:

- **In some cases, number distinction is realized through Zero Modification -**

Plural Morpheme	Singular		Plural	
/-Ø/	/əŋgʊɾ/	‘grape’	/əŋgʊɾ/	‘grapes’
	/hat ^h /	‘hand’	/hat ^h /	‘hands’

- In some cases, number distinction is realized through Alteration of Vowel -

Vowels	Singular		Plural	
/a/ → /e/	/bæcca/	‘child’	/bæcce/	‘children’
	/g ^h oɾa/	‘horse’	/g ^h oɾe/	‘horses’

- In some cases, number distinction is realized through Suffixation -

Plural Morpheme	Singular		Plural	
/ẽ/	/kɪtab/	‘book’	/kɪtabẽ/	‘books’
	/āk ^h /	‘eye’	/āk ^h ẽ/	‘eyes’
/õ/	/g ^h ər/	‘house’	/g ^h ərõ/	‘houses’
	/peɾ/	‘tree’	/peɾõ/	‘trees’
/ã/	/ləɾki/	‘girl’	/ləɾkiã/	‘girls’
	/d̪əli/	‘basket’	/d̪əliã/	‘baskets’

(B) Gender

Gender is a grammatical category that distinguishes nouns, pronouns and adjectives by the different inflections which they have and which determines their relationship with other words that are syntactically associated with them. Gender is a grammatical category in Mainpuri, i.e. the gender distinction in noun and pronoun has its effect on the syntactic structure of the language. Gender distinction in Mainpuri can be realized in the following ways:

- In some cases, gender distinction is indicated through separate set of lexical items -

Masculine

/pɪtəɟi/	‘father’
/b ^h əɪa/	‘brother’

Feminine

/əmma/	‘mother’
/bəhin/	‘sister’

- In some cases, gender distinction is indicated by alteration of vowel -

Masculine

/g ^h oɾa/	‘horse’
/sara/	‘wife’s brother’

Feminine

/g ^h oɾi/	‘mare’
/sari/	‘wife’s sister’

- In some cases, gender distinction is indicated by adding the suffix /-n/ -

Masculine		Feminine	
/natɪ/	‘daughter’s son’	/natɪn/	‘daughter’s daughter’
/səmdʰi/	‘daughter-in-law’s father’	/səmdʰɪn/	‘daughter-in-law’s father’

- In some cases, gender distinction is indicated by adding the suffix /-ani/ -

Masculine		Feminine	
/devər/	‘husband’s younger brother’	/devərani/	‘husband’s younger brother’s wife’
/ʃetʰ/	‘husband’s elder brother’	/ʃetʰani/	‘husband’s elder brother’s wife’

(C) Case

Case is a grammatical category that marks the relationship between a noun or pronoun and other elements within a sentence, such as, the verb, prepositions or other nouns. A case typically indicates the syntactic role of a noun or pronoun in a sentence, such as Subject, object, possessive, genitive, dative, accusative etc. The case of a noun or pronoun is typically indicated by inflectional ending that is added to the base form of the word.

i) Nominative Case

The nominative case generally marks the subject of a verb or the predicate noun or predicate adjective which is either a noun or a pronoun. The nominative case in Mainpuri is unmarked or marked as null ($\emptyset$) as shown in the following examples;

- /mɛ- $\emptyset$ ihā atʰẽ /
1SG-NOM here come-1SG.M.
‘I come here’
- /ɾamʊ- $\emptyset$ kəl nɔi aie/
‘3SG-NOM tomorrow NEG. be.FUT.3SG.M
‘Ramu will not come tomorrow’

ii) Accusative Case

Accusative case is the case found in nominative-accusative languages that marks certain syntactic functions, usually the direct objects of the verbs. In Mainpuri accusative case is sometimes unmarked (**/Ø/**) and sometimes marked by (**/-ko/**) as in the following instances:

- /ju ciɽia-Ø dek^he-ləi hoi/
3SG-NOM bird-ACC see-PRFV.3SG.F be.PRS.3SG
'It will have been seen the bird'
- /bəne bəɽar mē cor-ko pəkɽo to/
3PL market LOC thief-ACC catch be.PST.3PL
'They caught the thief in market.'

iii) Instrumental Case

Instrumental case is used to denote the instrument with which the action is performed. It indicates the referent of the noun. Instrumental case marker is realized as **/-se/** in Mainpuri. Following sentences will exemplify this:

- /mere kələm-se lɪk^h-o/
1SG.GEN pen-INS write-IMP.
'Write with my pen'
- /kēci-se bār-ko kaɽo/
scissors-INS hair-ACC cut-PRFV.PRS
'The hair is cut with scissors.'

iv) Dative Case

The dative case designates the indirect object of a transitive verb. Nouns having the role of recipient (as of things given), beneficiary of an action, or possessor of an item are datives. The context plays a crucial factor in differentiating between dative and accusative. In Mainpuri, the dative case is also marked by **/-ko/** as in the following examples:

- /sərkər-Ø gəribō-ko pəsa-Ø deti hɛ/
'Government-NOM poor-PL-DAT money-ACC give be.PRS.3SG
'The Government gives money to the poor'

- /ram-ne sam-**ko** kitab-Ø dei/
ram-ERG shyam-DAT book-ACC give.PST.3SG
'Ram gave this book to Shyam'

v) Ablative Case

Ablative case is a case that expresses movement of the subject or the object from one place to another either at the spatial plane or at the temporal plane. In Mainpuri language ablative case marker is **/-te/** as shown in the following examples:

- /peɽ-te pətt-e gɪɽ-te hẽ/
tree-ABL leaf-PL fall-IPFV be.PRS.3PL
'The leaves fall from the tree'
- /vəh me-re kʰɪɽki-te gɪɽ gəjə /
3SG 1SG.GEN window-ABL fall-PST
'He fell down from my window'

vi) Genitive Case

Genitive case expresses the meaning of belonging to or possession of something by the subject. In Mainpuri the genitive case is marked by **/-ra/**, **/-ri/** or **/-re/** (for 1st person), **/-ao/** or **/-ai/** (for 2nd person) and **/-ko/** or **/-ke/** or **/-ki/** (for 3rd person). The markers of the case vary depending upon the gender and number of the object that belongs to the marked nouns.

- /me-**ra** bæcca-Ø/
1.SG.GEN child-SG.M
'My child'
- /həma-**re** haɽʰ/
1.PL.GEN hand-PL
'Our hands'
- /təm-**ao** qʰəɽ/
2.SG.GEN house-SG.M
'Your house'
- /təm-**ai** do kitabẽ/
2.SG.GEN two book-PL
'Two books of yours'

- /ba-**ki** dəlī-ā/
3.SG.GEN.F basket-PL
'Her baskets'
- /ba-**ko** gʰər/
3SG.GEN.M house-SG
'His house'
- /ba-**ke** gʰər-ō/
3.SG.GEN.M house-PL
'His houses'

vii) Locative Case

Locative case is a case that expresses location at the referent of the noun it marks. The location of the subject or object is expressed by the locative case markers or postpositions. In Mainpuri, the locative case is realized as shown in the following examples:

- /həm bəʒər--Ø ʒat hẽ/
1.PL market-LOC go- IPRFV be.PRS.1PL
'We go to the market'
- /mere bəcc-e iskul-**mẽ** hẽ/
1SG.Gen child-PL school-LOC be.PRS.3PL
'My children are in the school'
- /tota peʃ **pe** hẽ/
parrot tree LOC be-PRS.3SG

viii) Ergativity in Mainpuri

An ergative language is a language that treats the subject of an intransitive verb like the object of a transitive verb, but treats the agent of a transitive verb differently. Mainpuri is neither strictly ergative nor strictly accusative (i.e. a language that marks the objects of transitive verbs, distinguishing them from the subject of both intransitive and transitive verbs). Mainpuri exhibits 'split-ergativity' i.e. the context determines whether Mainpuri will exhibit 'ergative alignment' or 'accusative alignment'. In Mainpuri, sometimes a verb agrees with its object, not with its subject. This phenomenon is sometimes called 'ergativity'.

In Mainpuri, when a verb is transitive and perfective/perfect, it generally exhibits ergative alignment. This means in such contexts transitive verbs agree with the object, not the agent. In other words, when a verb is transitive and perfective/perfect, the agent of the

transitive verb is in the oblique case (i.e. any noun case except the nominative case) and followed by the postposition /ne/, and the verb agrees with the object in person, number and gender. The post position /ne/ blocks the agent; thus, the verb cannot agree with the subject (agent), rather it agrees with the object. This phenomenon can be explained with the help of the following examples:

- /ram-**ne** mere kələm-se cɪʈʈʰi-Ø lɪkʰi/
ram-ERG 1SG.GEN pen-INS letter-ACC write.PFV.3SG
‘Ram wrote the letter with my pen’

- /sita-**ne** mēhmanō-ko kʰana--Ø dɔo/
sita-ERG guest-PL-DAT food-ACC. serve-PFV.3SG
‘Sita served the food to the guests’

In the first example, although the agent /ram/ ‘Ram’ is masculine, the verb /lɪkʰi/ ‘wrote’ is feminine, since the object /cɪʈʈʰi/ ‘letter’ is feminine. On the contrary. In the second example, although the agent /sita/ ‘Sita’ is feminine, the verb /dɔo/ ‘served’ is masculine, since the object /kʰana/ ‘food’ is masculine.

4.3.3. Pronoun

A pronoun is a word class or a part of speech which can substitute a single noun or a noun phrase. It can also take number, gender and case markers like the noun. But the functional difference between a noun and a pronoun is that the pronoun cannot take an determiner and pronoun can be used in all persons whereas a noun always refers to the third person. Mainpuri has following types of pronouns:

- i) Personal Pronoun
- ii) Demonstrative Pronoun
- iii) Reflexive Pronoun
- iv) Interrogative Pronoun
- v) Indefinite Pronoun

i) Personal Pronoun

A personal pronoun refers to a specific person or thing and changes its form to indicate person, number, gender and case. The personal pronoun system in Mainpuri distinguishes for two numbers and three persons.

Person	Singular		Plural	
First Person	/mɛ/	‘I’	/həm/	‘we’
Second Person	/təm/	‘you’	/təmlog/	‘you (PL)’
Third Person	/bu/ or /ba/, /bo/, /ɟu/	‘he/she/it’	/be/, /besəb/	‘they’

ii) Demonstrative Pronoun

Demonstrative Pronouns are deictic words that indicate which entities a speaker refers to and distinguish those entities from others. The demonstrative pronouns either of proximate or remote types is realized in two numbers that is singular and plural which are shown below. The collected data illustrates the fact that Mainpuri has two kinds of demonstrative pronouns- remote and proximate.

Pronouns	Proximate		Remote	
Singular	/ɟe/	‘this’	/be/	‘that’
Plural	/ɟesəb/	‘these’	/besəb/	‘those’

iii) Reflexive Pronoun

A reflexive pronoun is a pronoun that is preceded by the noun, adjective, adverb or pronoun to which it refers (its antecedent) within the same clause. A reflexive pronoun is an anaphor that must be bound by its antecedent in its local domain. In Mainpuri, reflexive pronouns are:

Reflexive Pronoun

/mɛ kʰɔd/	‘myself’
/həm kʰɔd/	‘ourselves’
/təm kʰɔd/	‘yourself’
/ba kʰɔd/	‘himself’

iv) Interrogative Pronoun

An interrogative pronoun is a function word for the item enquired in an information statement. Interrogative are also called ‘wh’-words in English.

Interrogative Pronoun

/ka/	‘what’
/kəb/	‘when’
/kite/	‘where’

/kaj/	‘why’
/ko/	‘who’

v) Indefinite Pronoun

The pronouns which are used to denote some non-definite person or thing instead of definite person or thing are called Indefinite pronouns.

Indefinite Pronoun

/koi/	‘anyone’
/səb ^h ilog/	‘everybody’
/səb/	‘all’

4.3.4. Person

Person is a grammatical category, used in the classification of pronouns, possessive determiners and verb forms, according to whether they indicate the speaker (first person), the addressee (second person) or a third party (third person). They are distinguished in all the tenses and moods and are also in different concordial relationship with the verb which will be shown in detail in the section of finite verbs. Example:

Person	Singular		Plural	
First Person	/mɛ/	‘I’	/həm/	‘we’
Second Person	/təm/	‘you’	/təmlog/	‘you (PL)’
Third Person	/bu/ or /ba/, /bo/, /ɟu/	‘he/she/it’	/be/, /besəb/	‘they’

4.4. Adjectives

An adjective is a word that belongs to a class whose members modify nouns and pronouns. An adjective specifies the properties or attributes of a noun (or pronoun) referent. Adjectives are used to add more detail and description to a sentence and help to form a clearer image of the noun being described.

4.4.1. Basic and Derived Adjectives

(A) Basic Adjective

Basic Adjectives are those which are a word class by themselves and are not derived from any other word class. Basic Adjectives can be divided into two types; they are – i) Attributive Adjective and ii) Predicative Adjective.

i) Attributive Adjective

Attributive adjective is an adjective that describes or modifies noun and is usually placed before the noun it modifies; as shown in the following examples:

<i>/cʰoʈe bəcə/</i>	‘small children’
<i>/əccʰo lɔɾa/</i>	‘good boy’

ii) Predicative Adjective

Predicative adjective is an adjective that comes after the linking verb or the subject of the sentence that it describes.

<i>/bo lɔɾki bɛhɛɾi hɛ/</i>	‘That girl is deaf’
<i>/be lɔɾkiã sɔndəɾ hẽ/</i>	‘Those girls are beautiful’

(B) Derived Adjective

An adjective that contains more than one morpheme by means of its root taking one or more affixes is called a Derived Adjective. It refers to all those adjectives which are derived from any other word class such as, noun, verb etc.

Word		Suffix		Derived Adjective
<i>/rog/</i>	‘disease’	+ /-i/	=	<i>/rogi/</i> ‘patient’
<i>/dəja/</i>	‘kindness’	+ /-lu/	=	<i>/dəjalu/</i> ‘kind’

4.4.2. Quantitative, Qualitative and Demonstrative Adjectives

(i) Quantitative Adjective

Quantitative adjective is a type of adjective that indicates the quantity, amount or number of something. These adjectives are used to describe the size, quantity or number of a noun in a sentence. Examples of quantitative adjectives in Mainpuri are as follows:

<i>/tʰoɾo/</i>	‘little’
<i>/do/</i>	‘two’
<i>/pɛhɛlo/</i>	‘first’

(ii) Qualitative Adjective

Qualitative adjective is a type of adjective that describes the quality or characteristic of a noun or pronoun. It is used to describe the nature, appearance, shape, size, colour, taste/smell etc. of something. Examples of qualitative adjectives in Mainpuri are as follows:

/əcc ^h o/	‘good’
/moʈo/	‘fat’
/lal/	‘red’

(iii) Demonstrative Adjective

Demonstrative adjective is a type of adjective that is used to indicate or point out a specific noun in a sentence. When pronominal forms are used as an adjective to demonstrate the nouns, they are called Demonstrative Adjectives.

/ʃe/	‘this’
/be/	‘that’
/ʃesəb/	‘these’
/besəb/	‘those’

4.4.4. Numerals

Numerals are those words or symbols that are used to represent number or quantities. They are used to count, measure and identify quantities of things, people or events. Numerals can be classified as – Cardinal Numbers, Ordinal Numbers and Fractional Numbers. Mainpuri has a decimal number system where the numbers are represented with the base of ‘ten’.

• Cardinal Numbers

Cardinal numbers are that type of numerals that are used to represent a specific quantity or number of things, people or events. Example of Cardinal numbers of Mainpuri are as follows:

Cardinal Number		Cardinal Number	
/ek/	‘one’	/ɪkkis/	‘twenty-one’
/do/	‘two’	/pētis /	‘thirty-five’
/tin/	‘three’	/əntalis/	‘thirty-nine’
/car/	‘four’	/pəcpən/	‘fifty-five’
/pāc/	‘five’	/eksət ^h /	‘sixty-one’
/c ^h ε/	‘six’	/ənhəttər/	‘sixty-nine’
/sat/	‘seven’	/pēcasi/	‘eighty-five’
/at ^h /	‘eight’	/ɪkkjanve/	‘ninety-one’

/nɔ/	‘nine’	/sɔ/	‘hundred’
/dəs/	‘ten’	/tinsɔ/	‘three hundred’
/barəh/	‘twelve’	/həʃar/	‘thousand’

- Ordinal Numbers:**

Ordinal numbers are that type of numerals that are used to indicate the position or order of an object or event in a sequence. Example of Ordinal numbers of Mainpuri are as follows:

Ordinal Number

/pəhelo/	‘first’
/dusro/	‘second’
/tisro/	‘third’

- Fractional Numbers:**

Fractional numbers, also known as fractions are that type of numerals which are used represent parts of a whole or a quantity that is not a whole number. Example of fractional numbers of Mainpuri are as follows:

Fractional Number

/pao/	‘quarter’
/ad ^h a/	‘half’
/d ^h ai/	‘two and half’

Formation of Higher Numerals in Mainpuri

Higher numerals are formed by adding allomorphs of numerical units (1-9) to the allomorphs of base unit.

/ba/	‘two’	+	/-ah-rəh/	‘decimal marker’	=	/barəh/	‘eleven’
/pāc/	‘five’	+	/-ah-rəh/	‘decimal marker’	=	/pəndrəh/	‘fifteen’
/ek/	‘one’	+	/bis/	‘twenty’	=	/ikkis/	‘twenty-one’
/ɔn/	‘one less than’	+	/bis/	‘twenty’	=	/ɔnnis/	‘nineteen’
/ek/	‘one’	+	/tis/	‘thirty’	=	/ekəttis/	‘thirty-one’
/pāc/	‘five’	+	/calis/	‘forty’	=	/pētalis/	‘forty-five’
/c ^h əh/	‘six’	+	/saɫ ^h /	‘sixty’	=	/eksəɫ ^h /	‘sixty-one’
/ɔn/	‘one less than’	+	/səttər/	‘seventy’	=	/ɔnhəttər/	‘sixty-nine’
/pāc/	‘five’	+	/əssi/	‘seventy’	=	/pēcasi/	‘eighty-one’

/tin/	‘three’	+	/sɔ/	‘hundred’	=	/tinsɔ/	‘three hundred’
/pãc/	‘five’	+	/sɔ/	‘hundred’	=	/pãcsɔ/	‘five hundred’

4.5. Verb Morphology

Verb Morphology deals with the forms of verbs and their declensional/ inflectional pattern in association with Tense, Aspect, Mood, etc. Verbs in Mainpuri can be of different type, depending upon the nature and form of the verbs. Mainpuri verbs in terms of complexity can be divided into two i.e. basic verb stem and complex verb which further can be divided into several sub groups such as conjunct and compound verb. Mainpuri verbs in terms of function may be of helping verb or main verb; in terms of agreement feature Mainpuri verbs are divided into two that is finite and nonfinite verbs and in terms of uses it may of several types. These all we can see under following headings

4.5.1. Types of Verbs

In terms of uses verbs can be of several types –

- **Physical Activity Verbs**

/piṭna/	‘to beat (somebody)’
/kaṭna/	‘to bite’

- **Instrument Verbs**

/p ^h aṭna/	‘split (wood)’
/kəṭṛa kaṭna/	‘to cut (cloth)’

- **Verbs of Fighting**

/akrəməṇ kəṛna/	‘to attack’
/dəṅgəl kəṛna/	‘to wrestle’

- **Music Verbs**

/naṇna/	‘to dance’
/gana gana/	‘to sing’

- **Motion Verbs**

/ṭ ^h na/	‘to rise’
/ḷana/	‘to go’

- **Occupational Verbs**

/saf kərna/	‘to clean’
/ilaʃ kərna/	‘to cure (an illness)’
- **Culinary Verbs**

/pisna/	‘to grind’
/mɪlana/	‘to mix’
- **Cosmetic Verbs**

/kəŋgʰa kərna/	‘to comb (hair)’
/baɪ baɪndʰɪna/	‘to tie (hair)’
- **Communication Verbs**

/pucʰna/	‘to ask (to question)’
/bɔɪlana/	‘to call’
- **Non-Motion Verbs**

/cʰɔpajna/	‘to hide’
/mərna/	‘to die’
- **Inchoative Verbs**

/pəkɪna/	‘to ripe (as a fruit)’
/ɔɡna/	‘to sprout’
- **Cognitive Verbs**

/səpna dekʰna/	‘to dream’
/sɪkʰna/	‘to learn’
- **Sensory Verbs**

/dekʰna/	‘to see’
/sona/	‘to sleep’

- **Emotive Verbs**

/sətana/	‘to annoy’
/cillana/	‘to scream’

4.5.2. Classification of Verbs

Classification of verbs refers to the categorization of verbs based on their use, function, syntactic and semantic properties etc. There are several ways to classify verbs:

(I) Verbs in terms of Function

Verbs in term of function can be divided into two i.e. **Main Verbs (MV)** and **Auxiliary Verbs (AUX)**. Main verb is a type of verb which denotes an action, event or state in a sentence while Auxiliaries are a type of verb which helps to the main verb. Like most of the Indian languages, Mainpuri Auxiliary too follows the main verb. The auxiliary verbs in Mainpuri are of two types i.e. Primary and Modals as in the followings examples:

- /kəʈta ʋte kʰəɽo hɛ/
dog there stand (MV) AUX
‘The dog is standing there.’
- /bu əbəu a səkət hoj/
3SG.M still come (MV) MOD AUX
‘He may still come.’

(II) Verbs in terms of Forms

In terms of form, verbs can be divided into two categories; they are – (A) Base Verbs, (B) Compound Verbs and (C) Conjunct Verbs.

(A) Base Verbs

Base verbs, also known as the base forms or infinitives, are the most basic form of a verb that usually appears in the dictionary. Base verbs can function as the main verb in a sentence. They can also be used in combination with auxiliary verbs to form various tenses and moods. Examples of base verbs from Mainpuri are as follows:

/həʃna/	‘to laugh’
/sona/	‘to sleep’
/dekʰna/	‘to see’

(B) Compound Verbs

Compound Verb refers to a complex verb form that comprises of a ‘Main Verb’ as a ‘bare stem’ (krdant) and a secondary element called the ‘helping verb’ that bears the information of tense and agreement. This secondary element has been variously termed as explicator, operator, auxiliary, vector etc. In Mainpuri, these vectors constitute a small class of typically motion verbs like /ʃana/ ‘to go’, /bɛʰna/ ‘to sit’, /dena/ ‘to give’, /lena/ ‘to take’ etc. (Bhat, R.N. 2002). Examples of compound verbs of Mainpuri are as follows:

Main Verb		Helping Verb		Compound Verb	
/nikəl-na/	‘to get out’	+	/lena/	‘to take’	= /nikəl lena/ ‘to take out’
/bənəj-na/	‘to make’	+	/dena/	‘to give’	= /bənə dena/ ‘to make to give someone’

(C) Conjunct Verbs

Conjunct Verb refers to a complex verb form that comprises of a ‘Noun’ or ‘Adjective’ and a verb that bears the information of tense and agreement (Bhat, R.N. 2002). Examples of compound verbs of Mainpuri are as follows:

Noun		Verb		Conjunct Verb	
/mərəmmət/	‘repair’	+	/kərna/	‘to do’	= /mərəmmət kərna/ ‘to repair’
/mədət/	‘help’	+	/kərna/	‘to do’	= /mədət kərna/ ‘to help’

Adjective		Verb		Conjunct Verb	
/saf/	‘clean’	+	/kərna/	‘to do’	= /saf kərna/ ‘to clean’
/tʰik/	‘right’	+	/kərna/	‘to do’	= /tʰik kərna/ ‘to amend’

(III) Verbs in terms of Transitivity

Transitivity is a grammatical term that refers to whether a verb requires an object or not. A transitive verb is a verb that requires an object to complete its meaning, while an intransitive verb does not require an object. In terms of transitivity, verbs can be divided into three categories; they are – (A) Intransitive Verbs, (B) Transitive Verbs and (C) Ditransitive Verbs.

(A) Intransitive Verbs

Intransitive verbs are those verbs that do not require any object to complete their meaning. Examples of Intransitive verbs of Mainpuri are as follows:

Intransitive Verb		Example in Sentences	
/ana/	‘to come’	/bəcca itte atu hɛ/	‘The child comes here’
/ʃana/	‘to go’	/mẽ bəʃar ʃat hũ/	‘I go to the market’

(B) Transitive Verbs

Transitive verbs are those verbs that require an object to complete their meaning. Examples of Intransitive verbs of Mainpuri are as follows:

Transitive Verb		Example in Sentences	
/k ^h ana/	‘to eat’	/mẽ roʃi k ^h at hũ/	‘I eat bread’
/dek ^h na/	‘to see’	/bu ciʃa dek ^h ət hoj/	‘He sees the bird’

(C) Ditransitive Verbs

Ditransitive verbs are those verbs that require two objects i.e. a direct object and an indirect object. The direct object receives the action of the verb, while the indirect object indicates to or for whom the action is being performed. Examples of Ditransitive verbs of Mainpuri are as follows:

Transitive Verb		Example in Sentences	
/dena/	‘to give’	/ramne samko kɪtab dei/	‘Ram gave the book to shyam’
/k ^h ana dena/	‘to serve’	/sitane mɛhmanõko k ^h ana dɔo/	‘Sita served the food to the guests’

(IV) Verbs in terms of Finiteness

Finiteness is a grammatical term that refers to whether a verb form shows tense, aspect and mood agreement with a subject. In terms of finiteness verbs are divided into two categories; they are (A) Finite Verbs and (B) Non-Finite Verbs.

(A) Finite Verb

A finite verb is a verb form that occurs in an independent clause and expresses a specific action, state or condition which is performed or undergone by the subject of the sentence.

Finite verbs convey several grammatical categories that includes (i) Tense, (ii) Aspect and (iii) Mood. In Mainpuri, finite verbs are formed by adding different suffixes to the verb roots/stems. These suffixes are the markers for different tense, aspect and mood of the verbs and they maintain an agreement with the person, number and gender of the subject or object of a sentence.

(i) Tense

Tense is a grammatical category that refers to the time at which an action has been taken place or a state of being has existed. Each tense is indicated by specific verb forms which changes according to the person, number and gender of the subject and the time frame of the action. Mainpuri has three tenses: Present, Past and Future. Different verb forms are available for different person, number and gender in different tenses. Formation of the verb /ʃana/ 'to go' for different number, gender and person in three different tenses have been shown below:

a. Present Tense

A tense that expresses an action that is currently going on or habitually performed or a state that currently or generally exists is called Present Tense. In Mainpuri present tense according to different person, number and gender is realized as the following:

Formation of Present Indefinite Tense in Mainpuri

Person	Pronominal form	Verb + Tense-png marker + Aux.	
1SG	/mẽ/	/ʃa+t+hũ/	'I go'
1PL	/həm/	/ʃa+t+hẽ/	'We go'
2SG	/təm/	/ʃa+t+ho/	'You (SG) go'
2PL	/təmsəb/	/ʃa+t+ho/	'You (PL) go'
3SG	/bu/	/ʃa+t+hœ/	'He goes'
3PL	/be/	/ʃa+t+hœ/	'They go'

Example in Sentences:

Person	Sentences	
1 st Person Singular	/mẽ bəʃar ʃat hũ/	'I go to the market'
1 st Person Plural	/həm bəʃar ʃat hẽ/	'We go to the market'
2 nd Person Singular	/təm bəʃar ʃat ho/	'You (SG) go to the market'
2 nd Person Plural	/təmsəb bəʃar ʃat ho/	'You (PL) go to the market'
3 rd Person Singular	/bu bəʃar ʃat hœ/	'He goes to the market'
3 rd Person Plural	/be bəʃar ʃat hœ/	'They go to the market'

b. Past Tense

A tense that expresses an action that has happened or a state that previously existed is called Past Tense. In Mainpuri past tense according to different person, number and gender is realized in the following ways:

Formation of Past Indefinite Tense in Mainpuri

Person	Pronominal form	Verb + Tense-png marker + Aux.	
1SG	/mẽ/	/gɛ+ja+t ^h a/	‘I went’
1PL	/həm/	/gɛ+je+t ^h ẽ/	‘We went’
2SG	/təm/	/gɛ+je+t ^h e/	‘You (SG) went’
2PL	/təmsəb/	/gɛ+je+t ^h e/	‘You (PL) went’
3SG	/bu/	/gɛ+jo+t ^h o/	‘He went’
3PL	/be/	/gɛ+je+t ^h ẽ/	‘They went’

Example in Sentences:

Person	Sentences	
1 st Person Singular	/mẽ bəʃar gɛja t ^h a /	‘I went to the market’
1 st Person Plural	/həm bəʃar gɛje t ^h ẽ/	‘We went to the market’
2 nd Person Singular	/təm bəʃar gɛje t ^h e/	‘You (SG) went to the market’
2 nd Person Plural	/təmsəb bəʃar gɛje t ^h e/	‘You (PL) went to the market’
3 rd Person Singular	/bu bəʃar gɛjo t ^h o/	‘He went to the market’
3 rd Person Plural	/be bəʃar gɛje t ^h ẽ/	‘They went to the market’

c. Future Tense

A tense that expresses an action that has not yet happened or a state that does not yet exist is called Future Tense. In Mainpuri, future tense according to different person, number and gender is realized in the following ways:

Formation of Future Indefinite Tense in Mainpuri

Person	Pronominal form	Verb + png + Tense Marker	
1SG	/mẽ/	/ʃa+nɔ+a/	‘I will go’
1PL	/həm/	/ʃa+nɪ+e/	‘We will go’
2SG	/təm/	/ʃa+i+o/	‘You (SG) will go’
2PL	/təmsəb/	/ʃa+i+o/	‘You (PL) will go’

3SG	/bo/	/ʃa+i+e/	‘She will go’
3PL	/be/	/ʃa+ni+e/	‘They will go’

Example in Sentences

Person	Sentences	
1 st Person Singular	/mẽ bəʃar ʃanɔa/	‘I will go to the market’
1 st Person Plural	/həm bəʃar ʃanie/	‘We will go to the market’
2 nd Person Singular	/təm bəʃar ʃaio/	‘You (SG) will go to the market’
2 nd Person Plural	/təmsəb bəʃar ʃaio/	‘You (PL) will go to the market’
3 rd Person Singular	/bo bəʃar ʃaie/	‘She went to the market’
3 rd Person Plural	/be bəʃar ʃanie/	‘They will go to the market’

(ii) Aspect

Aspect is a grammatical category associated with verbs that expresses a temporal view of the event or state expressed by the verb. Mainpuri has 3 aspects interpreted in different tenses – a. Progressive or Imperfective, b. Perfective and c. Habitual. Formation of the verb /ʃana/ ‘to go’ and /dek^hna/ ‘to see’ for different number, gender and person in three different aspects have been shown below:

a. Progressive or Imperfective Aspect

Progressive aspect is a grammatical aspect that describes an ongoing, continuous or repeated action that is not yet completed or is viewed as incomplete, regardless of whether it is happening in the present, past or future. In Mainpuri, Progressive aspect is realized in all the three tenses and the auxiliary verbs carry the tense markers in the progressive aspect.

• Present Progressive Aspect

The present progressive aspect is a grammatical aspect that describes an ongoing, continuous or repeated action that is currently taking place in the present time and yet not completed or viewed as complete.

Formation of Present Progressive Aspect in Mainpuri

Person	Pronominal form	Verb + Aspect-png marker + Aux	
1SG	/mẽ/	/ʃaj+rəj+ũ/	‘I am going’
1PL	/həm/	/ʃaj+rəj+ẽ/	‘We are going’
2SG	/təm/	/ʃaj+rəj+o/	‘You (SG) are going’
2PL	/təmsəb/	/ʃaj+rəj+o/	‘You (PL) are going’

3SG	/bu/	/ʃaj+rəj+oe/	‘He is going’
3PL	/be/	/ʃaj+rəj+ẽ/	‘They are going’

Example in Sentences:

Person	Sentences		
1 st Person Singular	/mẽ bəʃar ʃaj rəjũ/	‘I am going to the market’	
1 st Person Plural	/həm bəʃar ʃaj rəjẽ/	‘We are going to the market’	
2 nd Person Singular	/təm bəʃar ʃaj rəjo/	‘You (SG) are going to the market’	
2 nd Person Plural	/təmsəb bəʃar ʃaj rəjo/	‘You (PL) are going to the market’	
3 rd Person Singular	/bu bəʃar ʃaj rəjoe/	‘He is going to the market’	
3 rd Person Plural	/be bəʃar ʃaj rəjẽ/	‘They are going to the market’	

• Past Progressive Aspect

The past progressive aspect is a grammatical aspect that describes an ongoing, continuous or repeated action that was taking place in the past and was not completed yet or viewed as incomplete at a specific time in the past.

Formation of Past Progressive Aspect

Person	Pronominal form	Verb + Aspect-png marker + Aux	
1SG	/mẽ/	/ʃaj+rəj+t ^h a/	‘I was going’
1PL	/həm/	/ʃaj+rəj+t ^h ẽ/	‘We were going’
2SG	/təm/	/ʃaj+rəj+t ^h e/	‘You (SG) were going’
2PL	/təmsəb/	/ʃaj+rəj+t ^h e/	‘You (PL) were going’
3SG	/bu/	/ʃaj+rəj+t ^h o/	‘He was going’
3PL	/be/	/ʃaj+rəj+t ^h ẽ/	‘They were going’

Example in Sentences:

Person	Sentences		
1 st Person Singular	/mẽ bəʃar ʃaj rəj t ^h a/	‘I was going to the market’	
1 st Person Plural	/həm bəʃar ʃaj rəj t ^h ẽ/	‘We were going to the market’	
2 nd Person Singular	/təm bəʃar ʃaj rəj t ^h e/	‘You (SG) were going to the market’	
2 nd Person Plural	/təmsəb bəʃar ʃaj rəj t ^h e/	‘You (PL) were going to the market’	
3 rd Person Singular	/bu bəʃar ʃaj rəj t ^h o/	‘He was going to the market’	
3 rd Person Plural	/be bəʃar ʃaj rəj t ^h ẽ/	‘They were going to the market’	

- **Future Progressive Aspect**

The future progressive aspect is a grammatical aspect that describes an ongoing, continuous or repeated action that will be taking place in the future and will not yet be completed or viewed as incomplete at a specific time in the future.

Formation of Future Progressive Aspect

Person	Pronominal form	Verb + Aspect-png marker + Aux	
1SG	/mẽ/	/ʃa+rəi+honiə/	‘I shall be going’
1PL	/həm/	/ʃa+rəi+ honiẽ/	‘We will be going’
2SG	/təm/	/ʃa+rəi+hoio/	‘You (SG) will be going’
2PL	/təmsəb/	/ʃa+rəi+hoio/	‘You (PL) will be going’
3SG	/bu/	/ʃa+rəo+hore/	‘He will be going’
3PL	/be/	/ʃa+rəi+honiẽ/	‘They will be going’

Example in Sentences:

Person	Sentences	
1 st Person Singular	/mẽ bəʃar ʃa rəi honiə/	‘I shall be going to the market’
1 st Person Plural	/həm bəʃar ʃa rəi honiẽ/	‘We will be going to the market’
2 nd Person Singular	/təm k ^h et pe ʃa rəi hoio/	‘You (SG) will be going to the field’
2 nd Person Plural	/təmsəb k ^h et pe ʃa rəi hoio/	‘You (PL) will be going to the field’
3 rd Person Singular	/bu k ^h et pe ʃa rəi hore/	‘He will be going to the field’
3 rd Person Plural	/be k ^h et pe ʃa rəi honiẽ/	‘They will be going to the field’

b. Perfective Aspect

The perfective aspect is a grammatical aspect that describes an action, viewed as completed. It indicates that the action has been completed at specific point of time. In Mainpuri, perfective aspect is realized in all the three tenses and the auxiliary verbs carry the markers.

- **Present Perfective Aspect**

The present perfective aspect is a grammatical aspect that expresses the completion of an action which is just finished or was finished at some point of time in the past but is still relevant or connected to the present moment.

Formation of Present Perfective Aspect

Person	Pronominal form	Verb + Aspect-png marker + Aux	
1SG	/mẽ/	/gɛ+ja+hũ/	'I have gone'
1PL	/həm/	/gɛ+je+hẽ/	'We have gone'
2SG	/təm/	/gɛ+je+ho/	'You (SG) have gone'
2PL	/təmsəb/	/gɛ+je+ho/	'You (PL) have gone'
3SG	/bu/	/gɛ+je+he/	'She has gone'
3PL	/be/	/gɛ+je+hẽ/	'They have gone'

Example in Sentences:

Person	Sentences	
1 st Person Singular	/mẽ bəʃar gɛja hũ/	'I have gone to the market'
1 st Person Plural	/həm bəʃar gɛje hẽ/	'We have gone to the market'
2 nd Person Singular	/təm bəʃar gɛje ho/	'You (SG) have gone to the market'
2 nd Person Plural	/təmsəb bəʃar gɛje ho/	'You (PL) have gone to the market'
3 rd Person Singular	/bo bəʃar gɛje he/	'She has gone to the market'
3 rd Person Plural	/be bəʃar gɛje hẽ/	'They have gone to the market'

• Past Perfective Aspect

The present perfective aspect is a grammatical aspect that describes an action that was already done or completed in the past.

Formation of Past Perfective Aspect in Mainpuri

Person	Pronominal form	Verb + Aspect-png marker + Aux	
1SG	/mẽ/	/gɛ+va+t ^h a/	'I had gone'
1PL	/həm/	/gɛ+va+t ^h ẽ/	'We had gone'
2SG	/təm/	/gɛ+va+t ^h e/	'You (SG) had gone'
2PL	/təmsəb/	/gɛ+va+t ^h e/	'You (PL) had gone'
3SG	/bu/	/gɛ+va+t ^h o/	'He had gone'
3PL	/be/	/gɛ+va+t ^h ẽ/	'They had gone'

Example in Sentences:

Person	Sentences	
1 st Person Singular	/mẽ bəʃar ɣeʋa t ^h a/	‘I had gone to the market’
1 st Person Plural	/həm bəʃar ɣeʋa t ^h ẽ/	‘We had gone to the market’
2 nd Person Singular	/təm bəʃar ɣeʋa t ^h e/	‘You (SG) had gone to the market’
2 nd Person Plural	/təmsəb bəʃar ɣeʋa t ^h e/	‘You (PL) had gone to the market’
3 rd Person Singular	/bu bəʃar ɣeʋa t ^h o/	‘He had gone to the market’
3 rd Person Plual	/be bəʃar ɣeʋa t ^h ẽ/	‘They had gone to the market’

- **Future Perfective Aspect**

The future perfective aspect is a grammatical aspect that describes an action that will be completed at some point in the future. It is used to indicate that an action will have been completed before a specific point or event in the future.

Formation of Future Perfective Aspect in Mainpuri

Person	Pronominal form	Verb + Aspect-png marker + Aux	
1SG	/mẽ/	/ɣeʃa+vəi+hoia/	‘I will have gone’
1PL	/həm/	/ɣeʃa+vəi+hoiẽ/	‘We will have gone’
2SG	/təm/	/ɣeʃa+vəi+hoio/	‘You (SG) will have gone’
2PL	/təmsəb/	/ɣeʃa+vəi+hoio/	‘You (PL) will have gone’
3SG	/bo/	/ɣeʃa+vəi+hoie/	‘She will have gone’
3PL	/be/	/ɣeʃa+vəi+ hoiẽ/	‘They will have gone’

Example in Sentences:

Person	Sentences	
1 st Person Singular	/mẽ bəʃar ɣeʃavəi hoia/	‘I will have gone to the market’
1 st Person Plural	/həm bəʃar ɣeʃavəi hoiẽ/	‘We will have gone to the market’
2 nd Person Singular	/təm bəʃar ɣeʃavəi hoio/	‘You (SG) will have gone to the market’
2 nd Person Plural	/təmsəb bəʃar ɣeʃavəi hoio/	‘You (PL) will have gone to the market’
3 rd Person Singular	/bo bəʃar ɣeʃavəi hoie/	‘She will have gone to the market’
3 rd Person Plual	/be bəʃar ɣeʃavəi hoi/	‘They will have gone to the market’

c. Habitual Aspect

Habitual aspect is a grammatical aspect that expresses an action or event as a repeated or customary occurrence. It indicates that the action or event being described is a habitual, customary, repeated action that occurs over an extended period of time.

- **Present Habitual Aspect**

The present habitual aspect is a grammatical aspect that is used to indicate actions or events that occur habitually or usually in the present time frame. In Mainpuri, habitual aspect is expressed by forming habitual participle which is constructed by adding the suffix /-tə-/ to the verb root. The auxiliary verbs of the sentence carry the tense markers in the habitual aspect. Examples are as follows:

Example: /həm rəʃ gəɪ duhə-tə-ẽ/
1PL everyday cow milk-HAB-be.PRS.1PL
'We milk the cow's everyday.'

/surəʃ purəb mẽ ʊg-tə-e/
sun east LOC rise-HAB-be.PRS.3SG
'The sun rises in the east.'

- **Past Habitual Aspect**

The past habitual aspect is a grammatical aspect that is used to describe actions or events that were repeatedly or habitually performed in the past. It is used to convey a sense of customary or habitual behavior that occurred over a period of time. In Mainpuri, Past habitual is formed by adding /-t/ with the main verb and the auxiliary verbs of the sentence carry the tense markers in the habitual aspect.

Example: /mẽ nɔ bəʃe ɔfis ʃat tʰa/
1SG nine at office used to go be.PST.1SG
'I used to go to office at 9 o'clock.'

/bo nɔ bəʃe ɔfis ʃat tʰi /
3SG.F nine at office used to go be.PST.3SG
'She used to go to office at 9 o'clock.'

(iii) Mood

Mood refers to a grammatical category that expresses the speakers' attitude towards the state or action described by the verb. It indicates the relationship between the action or state and reality as perceived by the speaker. Different moods of Mainpuri are as follows:

a. Indicative Mood

Indicative mood is used to state a fact, make a statement or to ask a question.

Example: /surəʃ purəb mē ʊgtəe / 'The Sun rises in the East'
 /təmar nam kaj/ 'What is your name?'

b. Imperative Mood

Imperative mood is used to express commands or to give advice or instructions.

Example: /dʰirete bat kəro/ 'Speak slowly'
 /ʈebəl pe kʰəʈe he ʃao/ 'Stand on the table'

c. Subjunctive Mood

Subjunctive mood is used to express hypothetical situations, doubts or wishes.

Example: /əgər ɡʰoʈako pəŋkʰ hote to be uʈ 'If horses had wings they would have
 ʃatē/ flown'
 /əgər pəni ʈaɪm pe bəsto to dʰan ki 'The paddy crops could have been very
 fəsəl əccʰi hoti/ good if the rains were received on time.'

d. Conditional Mood

Conditional mood is used to express a condition or hypothesis and its consequences.

Example: /əgər bu məhənət kərue to səpʰəl 'If he works hard he will succeed'
 hove/
 /əgər relgaʈi der se ati to həm pəkəʈ 'If the train is late we may catch it'
 ʃatē/

e. Obligatory Mood

Obligatory mood is used to express obligation or compulsion.

Example: /kaʊ hal mē tume an hove/ 'Anyhow you must come'

/tume kaib^{hi} ihã na rajno/

‘You (sg) must not remain here’

(B) Non-Finite Verb

Non-finite verbs are those verb forms that do not indicate tense, number or gender and do not function as the main verb of a sentence. Instead, they are often used to modify other parts of sentence or to express actions that are incomplete or ongoing. Types of non-finite verb forms of Mainpuri are as follows:

(i) Gerund

Gerund is a non-finite verb form that is derived from a verb and functions as a noun in a sentence. Gerund can function as a subject of as well as an object of a verb. In Mainpuri, Gerunds are formed by adding /-na/ with the base form of the verb.

Example: /tərna svast^h ke lije æcc^ho he/

‘Swimming is good for health’

/dɔɔɾna g^hoɾase hot he/

‘Running is done by the horse’

(ii) Infinitive

Infinitive is a type of non-finite verb that expresses an action or state of being without reference to a particular state of being without reference to a particular tense, mood or subject. In Mainpuri, infinitives are formed by adding the suffix /-ve/ to the base form of the verb.

Example: /chəpevəi kɪtab pəɾve me asan hot he/ ‘Printed books are easy to read’

/bəhɔt log ʃəldise pəsa bənaɾve cahət hē/ ‘Many men desire to make money quickly’

iii) Participle

Participle is a type of non-finite verb form that is used to modify nouns or pronouns in a sentence. Participles can be formed from verbs by adding suffixes and can function as adjectives; that is why sometimes they are called ‘verbal adjectives’. These verbal adjectives or participial adjectives are used to describe the action or state of being of a person or an object. In Mainpuri, participles are formed by adding the suffix /-vəi/ to the base form of the verb:

Example: /b^hɔkənvəi kɔtta kəm kaɾət he/

‘Barking dogs seldom bites’

/mē ne ek ɡativəi cɪɾa k^həɾɪda/

‘I bought a singing bird’

/bo ɡɾevəi p^həlo ko ikətt^ha ki th^{hi}/

‘She collected the fallen fruits’

/chəpivəi kɪtab pəɾve me asan hot he/

‘Printed books are easy to read’

4.6. Adverb

Adverb is a wordclass or a part of speech that modifies or describes verbs, adjectives or other adverbs. Adverbs provide additional information about how, when or to what extent an action is performed or quality is expressed. Types of adverbs in Mainpuri are as follows:

i) Adverb of Manner

Adverb of manner is a type of adverb that modifies or describes the manner or way in which an action or verb is performed. Adverbs of manner provide information about how an action is carried out or the way in which something happens.

Adverb		Example in Sentence	
/d ^h irete/	‘slowly’	/d ^h irete bolo/	‘Speak slowly ’
/ʃorte/	‘loudly’	/ʃorte bat mət kəro/	‘Don’t speak loudly ’

ii) Adverb of Time

Adverb of time is a type of adverb that modifies or describes the time of an action or event. Adverbs of time provide information about when an action or event occurred or will occur.

Adverb		Example in Sentence	
/nə bəʃe/	‘9 O’ clock’	/mẽ nə bəʃe ɔfis ʃat t ^h a/	‘I used to go to office at 9 O’ clock’
/kəl/	‘tomorrow’	/mẽ kəl nəi anɔa/	‘I shall not come tomorrow’

iii) Adverb of Place

Adverb of place is a type of adverb that modifies or describes the location or position of an action or event. Adverbs of place provide information about where an action is taking place or where something is located.

Adverb		Example in Sentence	
/ɔpəɾ (se)/	‘over’	/ciɾja mat ^h e ke upəɾ se ɔɾ gɛi/	‘The bird flew over the head’
/nice/	‘below’	/bu peɾ ke nice sot hɔɛ/	‘He sleeps under the tree’

4.7. Negativization

Negativization is the process of expressing negation or the absence or opposite of something in a sentence. This can be achieved through the use of negative words, particles or

affixes or by using specific sentence structures or grammatical constructions that indicate negation. The purpose of negativization is to convey a negative meaning or to deny the occurrences or existence of something. In Mainpuri also, negatives are formed by using negative words or particles that are added to the sentence; examples are as follows:

- **By adding /nəɪ/:**

/ramʊ kəl nəɪ aɪe/

‘Ramu will not come tomorrow’

/kəl te bəs nəɪ cəɪe/

‘Tomorrow onwards buses will not run’

- **By adding /na/:**

/koi ʃe pəttʰəɽ na ʊtʰaj səkət/

‘No one can lift this stone’

/tume kaibʰi ihā na rajno/

‘You (sg) must not remain here’

- **By adding /mət/:**

/ʃorte bat mət kəro/

‘Don’t speak loudly’

/aɣ ke pas mət ʃaɪo/

‘Don’t go near the fire’

4.8. Passivization

Passivization is a grammatical process by which the subject of a sentence is made the patient or receiver of an action, while the agent or doer of the action is either omitted or introduced as a prepositional phrase or with a postposon. The purpose is often to shift the focus of the sentence from the agent or doer of the action to the object or recipient of the action. In Mainpuri, passives are formed by adding /-se/ to the agent of the verb and the passive verbs are formed by combining a perfective form of the main verb with a form of /ʃana/ ‘to go’ that acts as the auxiliary. Examples are as follows:

Example: /base kɪtab pəɽi ʃa rəttʰi/

‘The book was being read by him’

/ʊsse rəɽi kʰaj ɡəɪe/

‘The bread is eaten by him’

4.9. Causativization

Causativization is a grammatical process by which a verb is modified to indicate that the subject of the verb is causing or forcing or allowing another person or thing to perform an action. In other words, this is a linguistic operation that expresses the idea of making or causing someone or something to do something. The causative forms can be used in a wide range of situations such as describing the action of getting someone to do something or describing how something was caused to happen. It is also used to express politeness, especially in languages where it is considered impolite to give direct orders or commands.

Causatives can be formed in various ways depending on the language. In some languages it is formed syntactically by expressing the sense of causation through specific expressions such as, ‘make to do’ in English, as in ‘I have made him to do the work’ etc. On the other hand, there are some languages where causation is expressed morphologically as in Mainpuri where causatives are formed by adding suffix /-a/ or /-va/ with the base form of the verb.

In Mainpuri, verbs can be categorized into three related categories which express various relationship between the subject of the verb and verb itself; they are –, intransitive, transitive and Causative. Intransitive verbs are those that do not take any direct object for example: the verb /ɔɡna/ ‘being grown’ in /əŋɡur ɔɡtē/ ‘grapes grow’ is an intransitive verb as the sentence is in quasi-passive voice here. In order to make it transitive suffix /-a/ is added to the base form of the verb, for example, /ɔɡana/ ‘to grow’ in /həm əŋɡur ɔɡat hē/ ‘We grow grapes’. In this process the verb becomes transitive as it takes /-əŋɡur/ as its direct object here. Further, suffix /-va/ can be added in order to get the causative form i.e. /ɔɡvana/ ‘to make someone to grow something’ in /mē ɔsse əŋɡur ɔɡvat hū/.

However, not only the intransitive verbs, transitive verbs like - /k^hana/ ‘to eat’ also have their causative form. In this case, /-a/ is added to the base form of the verb to get the first causative form i.e. /-k^hilana/ ‘to feed’ while /-va/ is added to get the second causative form i.e. /-k^hilvana/ ‘to cause someone to feed’. Examples of causative formation in Mainpuri are as follows:

Intransitive		Transitive		Causative	
/ɔɡna/	‘to get grown’	/ɔɡana/	‘to grow’	/ɔɡvana/	‘to cause someone to grow something’
Transitive		1st Causative		2nd Causative	
/k ^h ana/	‘to eat’	/k ^h ilana/	‘to feed (someone)’	/k ^h ilvana/	‘to cause someone to feed (someone)’

5. SYNTAX

Syntax is a branch of linguistics that deals with the rules that govern the arrangement of words and phrases to create well-formed sentences in a language. It involves the study of how words are combined to form phrases, phrases are combined to form clauses and how clauses are combined to form sentences. Syntax also deals with the relationships between words and the structures that govern the formation of sentences, including word order, sentence structure, and grammatical categories and the rules of agreement between different parts of a sentence.

5.1. Word Order

Word order refers to the sequence in which words are arranged to form a sentence in a language. It involves the positioning of subject, verb, object and other syntactic elements in relation to each other to convey meaning. The word order of a sentence can vary across different languages and can have a significant impact on the meaning of a sentence. The word order of Mainpuri is of SOV pattern. Examples are as follows:

/mẽ	roʈi	kʰat	hũ/	'I eat bread'
1SG	bread	eat-PRS.1SG	AUX	
S	O	V		
/təm	əpni	beʈiko	bəlaʊ/	'Call your daughter'
2SG	GEN	daughter	call.IMP	
S		O	V	

5.2. Types of Sentences

A sentence is a group of words that express a complete thought, idea or statement. It typically contains a subject (a person, thing or idea) and a predicate (what the subject is doing or what is being said about it). A sentence can be short or long but it must convey a complete sense, thought or idea that can stand alone structurally, sentences can be of three types – (i) Simple Sentence, (ii) Complex Sentence and (iii) Compound Sentence.

(i) Simple Sentence

A simple sentence is a sentence structure that consists of one independent clause which contains a subject and a predicate and can stand alone as a complete sentence. It expresses a single idea or thought and typically has a basic structure with a basic word order. Simple sentences are commonly used in everyday speech as they always express a complete thought with a subject and a verb. Example of Simple sentences of Mainpuri are as follows:

/mẽ vəhã jat hũ/ 'I go there'
 1SG there go-PRS.1SG AUX

/həm gão mẽ rəhet 'I live in the village'
 hẽ/
 1PL village in-LOC live-PRS.1PL

(ii) Complex Sentence

A complex sentence is a sentence structure that contains one independent clause (a complete clause that can stand alone as a complete sentence) and at least one dependant clause (a clause that can not stand alone as a complete sentence). The dependant clause provides additional information about the independent clause and can not be used on its own.

[/təmare ane tək] [mẽ jəhã rəhnəa/]
 [2SG.GEN come-INF till] [1SG here stay FUT.1SG]
 dependant clause independent clause
 'I will stay here until you will come'

[/ʃe vəhi admi hɛ] [ʃa-se mẽ kəl mɪla tʰa/]
 [this the man be-PRS.3SG] [whom-with 1SG yesterday meet-PST AUX]
 independant clause dependent clause
 'This is the man whom I met yesterday'

(iii) Compound Sentence

A compound sentence is a sentence structure that contains two or more independent clauses (a complete clause that can stand alone) joined together by a conjunction. Each independent clause expresses a distinct idea or thought and the coordinating conjunct helps to link them together.

[/dɪn mẽ kam kəro] [ɔr] [rat mẽ so ʃao/]
 [day in work do-IMP.] [and] [night at sleep-IMP]
 independant clause conjunct independent clause
 'Work in the day and sleep at night'

[/təm pɛsa vapəs kədo] [nəto] [təme mar pəregi]
 [2SG money return do-PRS] [otherwise] [2SG beat get-FUT]
 independant clause conjunct independent clause
 'Return the money otherwise you'll get beaten'

5.3. Structure of Phrases

A phrase is a group of words that functions as a single unit in a sentence but does not contain both a subject and a verb. Phrase can be of various types, such as, Noun Phrase, Adjective Phrase, Adverb Phrase, Prepositional Phrase etc. Phrase structure of Mainpuri are as follows:

(i) Noun Phrase

A noun phrase is a group of words that function together as a single unit and includes a noun or pronoun as the head word or main word that gives the phrase its meaning along with other modifying words that modify it. Examples of Mainpuri are as follows:

/təməri do kɪtabẽ/	‘Two books of yours’
/səfəd ɡʰoɽe/	‘The white horses’

(ii) Verb Phrase

A verb phrase is a group of words that includes the main verb and one or more auxiliary (helping) verbs, which together function as a single unit within a sentence. The main verb in a verb phrase typically expresses the action or state of being while the auxiliary verb provides additional information about the tense, aspect or mood of the main verb. Verb phrase can function as the predicate of a sentence and they can be used to express a variety of meanings, including action, occurrence, possession and more. Examples of Mainpuri are as follows:

/bu ek kɪtab pəɽʰət hɔe/	‘He reads a book’
/surəʃ purəb dɪʃa mẽ ɔɡta hɔe/	‘The Sun rises in the east’

(iii) Postpositional Phrase

A postpositional phrase is a type of phrase in which a postposition (a word that comes after a noun or pronoun to indicate its relationship with another element in a sentence) functions as the head of the phrase. The postpositional phrase includes the postposition and any noun or pronoun that precedes it, as well as any modifiers that come before or after the postposition. Examples of Mainpuri are as follows:

/təbəl pe kʰəɽe hɔe ʃao/	‘Stand on the table’
/mẽ pəɽ ke pas hũ/	‘I am near the tree’

(iv) Adjective Phrase

An adjective phrase is a group of words that function together as a single unit and modify a noun or pronoun in a sentence. The head word of an adjective phrase is typically an

adjective that describes the characteristics or qualities of noun, while any other words in the phrase provide additional information or clarification about the description. Examples of Mainpuri are as follows:

/c^hoŋe bəcə/

‘The small children’

/əcc^ha lɔŋa/

‘The good boy’

(v) Adverb Phrase:

An adverb phrase is a group of words that function together as a single unit and modify a verb, an adjective or another adverb in a sentence. The head word of an adverb phrase is typically an adverb that describes the manner, place, time, degree or frequency of the action or event being described while any other words in the phrase provide additional information or clarification about the adverb. Examples of Mainpuri are as follows:

/mẽ nɔ bəŋe ɔfis ʃat t^ha/

‘I used to go to office at 9 o’clock’

/ʃu dəs bəŋe bəŋice mẽ ɡ^has

‘It goes to the garden for grazing at 10

saf kəvə ʃat he/

o’clock’

5.4. Structure of Clauses

A clause is a grammatical unit that consists of a subject and a predicate. It can be a complete sentence on its own or a part of a larger sentence. A clause typically contains a verb and describes an action, occurrence or state of being. It may also include other elements such as objects, complements or modifiers. There are two main types of clauses: Independent clause and Dependent Clause.

Independent Clause: An Independent clause is a type of clause that can stand alone as a complete sentence. It has a subject and a predicate and expresses a complete thought or statement. Independent clauses are also called the main clauses because they can be used independently of other clauses.

Dependent Clause: A dependent clause is a type of clause that can not stand alone as a complete sentence. It has a subject and a predicate, but does not express a complete thought or statement. Instead, it relies on an independent clause to complete its meaning. Dependent clauses are also called subordinate clauses because they depend on other clauses.

In Mainpuri, the concept of Independent and Dependent clause can be realized as follows:

[/ʃe vəhi admi hɛ]

[ʃa-se mẽ kəl mɪla t^ha/]

[this the man be.PRS.3SG] [whom-with 1SG yesterday meet.PST AUX]

independent clause

dependent clause

‘This is the man whom I met yesterday’

In Mainpuri, subordinate sentences can be further divided into different types based on their function in a sentence. These are as follows:

(i) Noun Clause

A dependent clause that functions as a noun in a sentence, is called a noun clause. In Mainpuri, a noun clause is generally formed using a subordinating conjunct /kɪ/ 'that' which makes it a dependent clause. Examples are as follows:

[/ɛso kəho ʃət hɛ/]	[/kɪ ʃe ɑdmi bʰərose ləjək hɛ nəɪ/]
[it say.PASS be]	[that this man trust worthy be NEG]
independent clause	dependent clause
'It is said that this man is not trust-worthy'	

(ii) Adverbial Clause

A dependent clause that functions as an adverb in a sentence, is called an adverbial clause. It provides information about when, where, why or how something happened in the independent clause. In Mainpuri, an adverbial clause is introduced by using subordinating conjunctions such as, /ʃəbo/ 'when', /ʃəbo tək/ 'until', /ʃəhā/ 'where', /əgər/ 'if' etc. which makes it a dependent clause. Examples are as follows:

[/əgər gʰoʃeko pəŋkʰ hote/]	[/be uʃ ʃətẽ/]
[if horse-PL.GEN wing be.FUT.3PL]	[3PL fly AUX.FUT.3PL.]
dependent clause	independent clause
'If horses had wings they would have flown'	

(iii) Relative/ Adjective Clause

A relative clause, also known as an adjective clause, is a type of dependent clause that modifies a noun or pronoun in the main clause. In Mainpuri, relative clause is introduced by using subordinating conjunctions such as, /ʃo/ 'who/which', /ʃake/ or /ʃase/ 'whom', /ʃinko/ 'whose' etc. which makes it a dependent clause. Examples are as follows:

/ʃe vəhi ɑdmi hɛ/	/ʃa-se mẽ kəl mɪla tʰɑ/
[this the man be.PRS.3SG]	[whom-with 1SG yesterday meet.PST AUX]
independent clause	dependent clause
'This is the man whom I met yesterday'	

(iv) Correlative Clause

A correlative clause is a type of subordinate clause that is linked to the main clause by correlative conjunctions in order to depict the relationship between the ideas expressed in the main clause and the dependant clause, emphasizing the relation or parallelism between them. In Mainpuri, Correlative clauses are introduced by pair of conjunctions such as, /ʃo...vo/ etc. Examples are as follows:

/ʃo	admi	kəl	mər	gɛ/	/vo	ek	gəjək	tʰo/
[REL.	man	yesterday	die	be.PST]	[DEM	a	singer	be.PST.3SG]
‘The man who died yesterday was a singer’								

5.5. Patterns of Sentences

A sentence is a group of words that express a complete thought, idea or statement. It typically contains a subject (a person, thing or idea) and a predicate (what the subject is doing or what is being said about it). Semantically, sentences can be of main five types; they are –

- (i) Declarative Sentence
- (ii) Interrogative Sentence
- (iii) Imperative Sentence
- (iv) Exclamatory Sentence
- (v) Conditional Sentence

(i) Declarative Sentence

A declarative sentence is a type of sentence that makes a statement or assertion. It is used to convey information, express thoughts or ideas or to state a fact. A declarative sentence can either be affirmative or negative. An affirmative declarative sentence simply affirms something to be true while a negative declarative sentence denies something to be true. Examples from Mainpuri are as follows:

/surəʃ purəb mẽ ɔgtɔe/	‘Sun rises in the east.’
/mẽ roʃi kʰat hũ/	‘I eat bread.’

(ii) Interrogative Sentence

An interrogative sentence is a type of sentence that asks a question. It is used to gather information or to seek clarification on a particular topic. Examples from Mainpuri are as follows:

/təmar nam kaj/	‘What is your name?’
/təm kəbo ɔʃʰət ho/	‘When do you go up?’

(iii) Imperative Sentence

An imperative sentence is a type of sentence that gives a command, advice, request or instruction. It is used to direct someone, to do something or to provide guidance on how to perform a task etc. Examples from Mainpuri are as follows:

/ʈebəl pər kʰəɽe ho ʃao/	‘Stand on the table.’
/dʱirete bat kəro/	‘Speak slowly.’

(iv) Exclamatory Sentence

An exclamatory sentence is a type of sentence that expresses strong emotions such as surprise, excitement, sorrow, or anger. It is used to make an emphatic statement or to convey intense feelings about something. Examples from Mainpuri are as follows:

/təm kɪtte ləmbə hɛ gɛ!/ /bu əbətʃ ʃəʋən malum pəttə he!/ 	‘How tall you have grown!’ ‘He seems still young!’
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(v) Conditional Sentence

An optative sentence is a type of sentence that expresses a wish, hope, desire or prayer etc. It is often used to express a sense of longing or to express a desire for something to happen. Examples from Mainpuri are as follows:

/əgər bu məhənət kərɒve to səpʰəl hove/ /əgər gʰoɽako pəŋkʰ hote to be uɽ ʃatẽ/ 	‘If he works hard he will succeed’ ‘If horses had wings they would have flown’
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5.6 Negativization

Negativization is the process of expressing negation or the absence or opposite of something in a sentence. This can be achieved through the use of negative words, particles or affixes or by using specific sentence structures or grammatical constructions that indicate negation. The purpose of negativization is to convey a negative meaning or to deny the occurrences or existence of something. It involves transforming an affirmative sentence into a negative one.

Negativization in Mainpuri can be complex and may involve the use of multiple words and grammatical particles to convey the desired meaning. In Mainpuri also, negatives are formed by using negative words or particles that are added to the sentence; examples are as follows:

- **By adding /nə/**

Assertive	- /ramɔ̃ kəl aɪe/	‘Ramu will come tomorrow’
Negative	- /ramɔ̃ kəl nəɪ aɪe/	‘Ramu will not come tomorrow’

- **By adding /na/**

Assertive	- /koibʰi ʒe pəttʰəɽ ɔ̃ʰaj səkət/	‘Any one can lift this stone’
Negative	- /koi ʒe pəttʰəɽ na ɔ̃ʰaj səkət/	‘No one can lift this stone’

- **By adding /mət/**

Assertive	- /ʃorte bat mət kəro/	‘Speak loudly’
Negative	- /ʃorte bat mət kəro/	‘Don’t speak loudly’

5.7 Passivization

Passivization is a grammatical process by which the subject of a sentence is made the patient or receiver of an action, while the agent or doer of the action is either omitted or introduced as a prepositional phrase or with a postposon. The purpose is often to shift the focus of the sentence from the agent or doer of the action to the object or recipient of the action. It is a common way of emphasizing the importance of the action rather than the agent performing it. Generally, in Passivization the subject of the active sentence becomes the agent of the passive sentence, and is marked by a preposition or postposition while, the object of the active sentence becomes the subject of the passive sentence and receives the action of the verb that changes its form to agree with the new subject of the sentence.

In Mainpuri, passives are formed by adding /-se/ to the agent of the verb and the passive verbs are formed by combining a perfective form of the main verb with a form of /ʒana/ ‘to go’ that acts as the auxiliary. Examples are as follows:

/gʰoɽa dɔoɽət he/	‘Horses run’
/dɔoɽna gʰoɽase hot he/	‘Running is done by the horses’
/bu roɽi kʰat he/	‘He eats bread’
/ɔ̃sse roɽi kʰaj gəɪe/	‘Bread is eaten by him’

5.8. Causativization

Causativization is a grammatical process by which a verb is modified to indicate that the subject of the verb is causing or forcing or allowing another person or thing to perform an action. In other words, this is a linguistic operation that expresses the idea of making or causing someone or something to do something. The causatives form can be used in a wide range of

situations such as describing the action of getting someone to do something or describing how something was caused to happen. It is also used to express politeness, especially in languages where it is considered impolite to give direct orders or commands.

Causatives can be formed in various ways depending on the language. In some languages it is formed syntactically by expressing the sense of causation through specific expressions such as, ‘make to do’ in English, as in ‘I have made him to do the work’ etc. On the other hand, there are some languages/ mother tongues where causation is expressed morphologically as in Mainpuri where causatives are formed by adding suffix /-a/ or /-va/ with the base form of the verb. This has been discussed in detail in section 4.9. However, when the causatives are expressed in sentences the recipient of a transitive verb is often (not always) marked with /-ko/ and where the agent of the second causative verb is mentioned, then it is followed by the postposition /-se/. Examples from Mainpuri are as follows:

Causativization in Intransitive Verb:

Intransitive	/ʊgna/	‘to get grown’	-	/əŋgur ʊgte/	‘Grapes grow’
Transitive	/ʊgana/	‘to grow’	-	/həm əŋgur ʊgat hẽ/	‘We grow grapes’
Causative	/ʊgvaɲna/	‘to cause someone to grow something’	-	/həm buse əŋgur ʊgvat hẽ/	‘He made him to grow grapes’

Causativization in Transitive Verb:

Transitive	/k ^h ana/	‘to eat’	-	/bəcca k ^h ana k ^h at he/	‘Baby eats food’
1 st Causative	/k ^h ɪlana/	‘to feed (someone)’	-	/mẽ becce ko k ^h ana k ^h ɪlati hũ/	‘I feed the baby’
2 nd Causative	/k ^h ɪlvana/	‘to cause someone to feed (someone)’	-	/mẽ nərsse becce ko k ^h ana k ^h ɪlvati hũ /	‘I make the nurse to feed the baby’

6. CONCLUSION

In the forgone discussion a detailed grammatical structure of Mainpuri has been presented with illustrations based on the collected data from field. Its Phonological features resonates very much with that of Hindi language. Morphologically, Mainpuri is an inflexional type of language that means, here words are formed by adding syllables or letters (i. e. affixes) or different postpositions to the stem and different endings are used to form different types of words. According to the presentation, Mainpuri shares the features of Indo-Aryan language family. In all aspects like phonology, morphology and syntax it shows a great affinity with other mother tongues of that region which are grouped under Hindi.

Some peculiarities are also there that distinguishes Mainpuri from other mother tongues grouped under Hindi; these are –

a. the /l/ sound of Hindi has often become /ɾ/ in Mainpuri, such as, /həl/ ‘plough’ becomes /həɾ/, /məlhəm/ ‘ointment’ becomes /məɾhəm/, /gal/ ‘cheek’ becomes /gaɾ/ Mainpuri.

b. vowel rounding is an important feature of Mainpuri. Veowel /a/ of Hindi sometimes becomes /o/ in the word final positions, specially in case of adjectives; for example - /ləmba/ ‘tall’ becomes /ləmbo/, /kacca/ ‘raw’ becomes /kacco/, /səsta/ ‘cheap’ becomes /səsto/ in Mainpuri.

c. Verb forms in Mainpuri may slightly differ from the standard Hindi due to difference in the suffixes added to the verb roots/stems. For example, /mẽ bazar jaungga/ ‘I will go to the market’ becomes /mẽ bəʒar ʒanʊa/; /vəh cɪɾa dekhta hɛ/ ‘He sees the bird’ becomes /bu cɪɾa dekʰət hoj/ in Mainpuri.

These unique features distinguishes Mainpuri from other mother tongues or variations of standard Hindi, however, in terms of grammar and basic vocabulary, Mainpuri and Hindi are quite similar. They share a common linguistic foundation and speakers of one can easily understand and communicate with speakers of the other. So, it can be said to conclude that Mainpuri is an Indo-Aryan language, spoken around the Braj region of Uttar Pradesh and it is fairly close to the standard Hindi language.

7. TEXT

Two friends and a Bear

/do dost ɔr ek bʰalu/

/ramu ɔr sam dono dost atʰe/

‘Ramu and Shyam were two friends.’

/be dono ek dʊsrese bʌdʌ kʌrɔ ke be hʌr ek kʰʌtrʌme ek dʊsreko satʰ nɪbʰʌie/

‘They (two) promised each other that they would remain united in case of any danger.’

/ek dɪn be ʃʌŋgəl me gɛje/

‘One day they were walking through a forest.’

/samnete ek bʰalu ʌo/

‘A bear came on their way.’

/bʰʌluko dekʰkʌr dono bʌhʌt dʌr gɛjɛ/

‘Having seen the bear both the friends became terrified’

/ramu dʌrke mʌre pɛɽpe cʌɽ gɛjo/

‘Ramu climbed a tree in fear.’

/samko pɛɽpe cʌɽbo nʌi ʌto/

‘Shyam did not know how to climb a tree.’

/be ʌpne mɪtrʌ rʌmʌse bʌlo, ‘mɔj pɛɽpe cʌɽbo nʌi ʌto he, meri mʌdʌt kʌr’/

‘He told his friend Ramu, ‘I do not know how to climb a tree, please help me’.’

/rʌmʌne kʌcʰʊ nʌi kʌhi/

‘But Ramu did not respond.’

/dʌkʰi hʌke sʌm sʌs rʌkke ʃʌmɪnpɛ lɛɽ go/

In fear and grief, Shyam lay down on the ground breathless.

/ʃʌldiʰi bʰʌlu ʌ gɛjo/

‘The bear came there very soon.’

/ʃʌmɪnpɛ sʌmko dekʰkʌr bʌke pʌs gɛjo ɔr suŋʌn lʌgo/

‘Seeing Shyam, lying on the ground, It went to him and started to smell him.’

/kʌcʰʌ der suŋʌnke bʌd ʃʌ sʌmko cʰʌrke cʌlo gɛjo/

‘It smelt for some time and went away leaving shyam there.’

/ramune soca samke kanme b^halune kəc^hə kəihe/

‘Ramu thought that the bear had said something to Shyam.’

/ramu ʃəldise nice əo əor samse puc^ho, ‘mere dost b^halune tere kanme ka kəi’/

Ramu came down and asked his friend Shyam, "Friend, what did the bear tell you into your ears?"

/samu bolo, “b^halune kəi ke o svart^hi admipe b^hərosa mət kəro ʃo tume musibətme əkelo c^horke cəlo ʃatəe/

‘Shyam replied , ‘The bear advised me not to trust a friend who leaves you in times of trouble’.’

/itto kəhəke sam vəhã se əkelo cəlo gəjo/

Saying this Shyam walked away alone.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Malham is reported to be spoken only in small pockets of the Ghaziabad district of Uttar Pradesh. The speakers of the mother tongue Malham is very limited. So, it's very unlikely that there exists any variety of this particular mother tongue. The domain of use of Malham is limited to home and peer groups.

Malham is a dialect of Hindi and thus, it is very similar to Hindi. It is spoken by a very small number of people. It is linguistically very close to modern Hindi and Khari-Boli, another language/mother tongue spoken in the area.

1.1 Family affiliation

Malham belongs to the Indo-Aryan language family. Malham is linguistically closest to modern Hindi and Khari-Boli. Both of these two language/variety is predominantly spoken in the area where Malham is reported to have been spoken.

1.2 Location

Malham is reported to be spoken in the western part of Uttar Pradesh in India. There appears to have a lot of migration in the region which may be attributed to change in landscape of this region because of large scale urbanisation and its proximity to Delhi, the area called as the NCR region. Although, it is not very clear whether Malham is spoken by the migrant population or the inhabitants of this area. Another way of explaining the meagre speakers of Malham could be that they may be the groups of people who live under one flyover to the other and thus, they are constantly on the move.

1.3 Speakers strength: language-mother tongue-bilingualism

The number of Malham speaking population is very limited and the because of tremendous pressure from dominant languages surrounding them, their number has in fact declined very fast. Another reason for their decreasing number is due to the socio-economic and political compulsions. All the people speaking this variety also speak Hindi, a dominant variety.

1.4 Socio-linguistic information

The mother tongue Malham is only reported to be spoken in a small pocket of the Ghaziabad district of Uttar Pradesh. The mother tongue Malham is spoken by a very small number of the population. Its use is also limited to homes and peer groups only. Malham is not used in formal way of communication such as medium of instruction or teaching in schools, colleges, public places, markets, administration, judiciary, news or print media etc. Malham

doesn't have the tradition of written literature. The existence of any oral literature or folklore is also not known. The Malham speakers claim to be able to write using Devanagari script.

1.5 Present study

The data for Malham was collected under the Mother Tongue Survey of India conducted by Language Division, Office of the Registrar General, India in collaboration with Directorate of Census Operation, Office of the Registrar General, India of the respective states. The data was collected based on settlement type, gender and age of the informant. Thus, every mother tongue had either four or eight samples. The data from every sample was then transcribed and a sketch of the mother tongue prepared by linguistic resource person (LRPs) engaged for the purpose from different state and central universities spread across India. These sketches were then consolidated by professors in linguistics or linguists from Language Division.

The mother tongue data for Malham was collected from Nagar Nigam, Ghaziabad district of Uttar Pradesh. The informants were Smt. Suman Gupta and Shri Ranjeet Kumar. The guide and interpreter were Shri Manoj Kumar and Shri Balwant Singh. The data elicitors were Shri Ajay Singh and Shri Kailash Bind from Directorate of Census Operation, Uttar Pradesh. The transcription and analysis of the samples were done by Shri Raghwandra Singh Rajput of the HSG University and Shri Mahboob Zahid of the University of Delhi. The consolidation of the analyses was done by Shri Deepak Kumar of the Language Division. Another field visit was undertaken by me to collect more data for the present study.

2. PHONOLOGY

Phonetics is the study of sounds in any natural language and Phonology is the study of how such sounds are organized and used in natural languages. The phonological system of a language includes an inventory of sounds and their features and rules which specify how sounds interact with each other. Phonemic analysis helps in allotting all the indefinite number of sounds occurring in utterances to a definite and limited set of phonemes contrastive in at least some environment.

2.1 Phonemic Inventory (Segmental):

Phonetic Inventory is the distribution of both segmental (consonant and vowel phonemes) and supra-segmental of a language.

2.1.1 Vowels

Vowels [-Consonant, +Syllabic, +Sonarant] refer to those speech sounds which are articulated without perceptible obstruction in oral cavity. The vowels can be construed as the following chart:

	Unrounded			Rounded	
	Front		Central	Back	
High	ɪ	i		ʊ	u
Mid	e		ə		o
Mid-low	ɛ				
Low					ɑ

Vowel Chart

2.1.2 Consonants

Consonants [+Consonantal, -Vocalic] refer to those speech sounds which are articulated with perceptible obstruction in oral cavity. The consonant can be construed in the following chart:

	Bilabial		Dental		Retroflex		Palatal		Velar		Glottal
	VL	VD	VL	VD	VL	VD	VL	VD	VL	VD	VL
Unaspirated	p	b	t	d	ʈ	ɖ	c	ɟ	k	g	
Aspirated	p ^h	b ^h	t ^h	d ^h	ʈ ^h	ɖ ^h	c ^h	ɟ ^h	k ^h	g ^h	
NASAL		m		n		ɳ				ŋ	
IMPLOSIVE											
FRICATIVE			s			ʃ					h

TRILL				r							
FLAP						ɾ					
LATERAL				l							
Approximant	ʋ							j			

Consonant Chart

2.2 Distribution

2.2.1 Vowel

In this section, the distribution of vowels is given followed by the vowel chart. The distribution of vowels is given below. They can occur word initially, medially, and finally.

	Initial	Medial	Final
/i/ High front unrounded vowel.			
	/ĩdʰən/	/tin/	/gʰatʃi/
	‘fuel’	‘threee’	‘valley’
/ɪ/ Front Mid-high unrounded short vowel.			
	/ɪstri/	/bɪdʰʊɑ/	/stʰɪtɪ/
	‘female’	‘widow’	‘status’
/e/ Mid-high front unrounded vowel.			
	/ek/	/tel/	/picʰe/
	‘one’	‘oil’	‘behind’
/ɛ/ Front Mid-low unrounded vowel.			
	/ɛlməɔniyəmsɑ/	/mɛdan/	/mɛ/
	‘aluminium’	‘ground’	‘I’
/ə/ Central Mid unrounded vowel			
		/fəŋgəɭ /	/vəɾɾiyə/
		‘forest’	‘wasp’
/ɑ/ Low Back unrounded vowel.			
	/ɑtʰ/	/rakʰ/	/pura/
	‘eight’	‘ash’	‘full’
/o/ Mid-high back rounded vowel.			
	/oʃ/	/sonɑ/	/do/
	‘dew’	‘gold’	‘two’
/ʊ/ Back Mid-high rounded short vowel.			

	/ɔllu/ ‘owl’	/sɔr/ ‘tune’	/dʰatɔ/ ‘metal’
/u/ High back rounded vowel.			
	/udʰar lena/ ‘to borrow’	/dud/ ‘milk’	/ɔllu/ ‘owl’

2.2.2 Consonant

The distribution of consonants is given below. They can occur initially, medially, and finally.

	Initial	Medial	Final
/p/ Bilabial voiceless unaspirated stop.			
	/pəsəli/ ‘rib’	/kəpəra/ ‘cloth’	/bʰɔkəmp/ ‘earthquake’
/pʰ/ Bilabial voiceless aspirated stop.			
	/pʰepʰəɽa/ ‘lung’	/pʰepʰəɽa/ ‘lung’	/səpʰ/ ‘clean’
/b/ Bilabial voiced unaspirated stop.			
	/bɔkʰar/ ‘fever’	/debəta/ ‘god’	/purəb/ ‘east’
/bʰ/ Bilabial voiced aspirated stop.			
	/bʰɔkəmp/ ‘earthquake’	/cabʰi/ ‘key’	/jibʰ/ ‘tongue’
/t/ Dental voiceless unaspirated stop.			
	/tap/ ‘heat’	/mɔrti/ ‘idol’	/dāt/ ‘tooth’
/tʰ/ Dental voiceless aspirated stop.			
	/tʰali/ ‘plate’	/hətʰeli/ ‘palm’	/satʰ/ ‘with’
/d/ Dental voiced unaspirated stop.			
	/dud/ ‘milk’	/bəramda/ ‘verandah’	/dud/ ‘milk’
/dʰ/ Dental voiced aspirated stop.			
	/dʰan/ ‘milk’	/adʰa/ ‘milk’	/yɔddʰ/ ‘milk’

	‘paddy’	‘half’	‘war’
/ɭ/ Retroflex voiceless unaspirated stop.			
	/ɭopi/ ‘cap’	/kʰəɭiya/ ‘cot’	/pet/ ‘stomach’
/ɭʰ/ Retroflex voiceless aspirated stop.			
	/ɭʰəɳɖ/ ‘cold’	/aɭʰarəh/ ‘eighteen’	/piɭʰ/ ‘back’
/ɖ/ Retroflex voiced unaspirated stop.			
	/ɖakəya/ ‘postman’	/aɳɖa/ ‘egg’	/ɭʰəɳɖ/ ‘cold’
/ɖʰ/ Retroflex voiced aspirated stop.			
	/ɖʰol/ ‘drum’	/mɛɖʰək/ ‘toad’	/baɖʰ/ ‘flood’
/k/ Velar voiceless unaspirated stop.			
	/koyəla/ ‘coal’	/bʰəkəmp/ ‘earthquake’	/səɾək/ ‘road’
/kʰ/ Velar voiceless aspirated stop.			
	/kʰətra/ ‘danger’	/bəkʰar/ ‘fever’	/rakʰ/ ‘ash’
/g/ Velar voiced unaspirated stop.			
	/gəssa/ ‘anger’	/kaɡəj/ ‘paper’	/suərg/ ‘heaven’
/gʰ/ Velar voiced aspirated stop.			
	/gʰəntʃi/ /bel/	/kəŋgʰa / ‘comb’	/baɡʰ/ ‘tiger’
/m/ Bilabial voiced unaspirated nasal stop.			
	/məçʰəli/ ‘fish’	/mɛdan/ ‘ground’	/dəs/ ‘ten’
/n/ Dental voiced unaspirated nasal stop.			
	/nə/ ‘nine’	/cuna/ ‘lime’	/kʰan/ ‘mine’
/ɳ/ Retroflex voiced unaspirated nasal.			
		/məɳi/ ‘gem’	/gəɳ/ ‘property’

/ŋ/ Velar voiced unaspirated nasal.			
		/aŋɡur/ ‘grape’	/pətəŋ/ ‘kite’
/ç/ Palatal voiceless unaspirated affricate.			
	/cavəl/ ‘rice’	/bəɡica/ ‘garden’	/mɪrc/ ‘chilly’
/tʃ/ Palatal voiceless aspirated affricate.			
	/tʃatr/ ‘student’	/pəʃarna/ ‘to winnow’	/pũtʃ/ ‘tail’
/j/ Palatal voiced unaspirated affricate.			
	/jɪnda/ ‘alive’	/heja/ ‘cholera’	/ɪlɔj/ ‘treatment’
/tʃʰ/ Palatal voiced aspirated affricate.			
	/tʃʰaɾu/ ‘broom’	/oɟʰa/ ‘sorcerer’	/sãjʰ/ ‘evening’
/v/ Bilabial voiced approximant.			
	/vəkɪl/ ‘advocate’	/cavəl/ ‘rice’	/ɒtʌsəv/ ‘festival’
/s/ Alveolar voiceless fricative.			
	/sãs/ ‘breath’	/pəsli/ ‘rib’	/sãs/ ‘breath’
/ʃ/ Palatal voiceless fricative.			
	/ʃant/ ‘sober’	/pəʃcɪm/ ‘west’	/nɪɾdɔʃ/ ‘innocent’
/h/ Glottal voiced fricative			
	/həɾa/ ‘green’	/lɔhɑɾ/ ‘blacksmith’	/sɔbəh/ ‘morning’
/ɾ/ Alveolar unaspirated Flap			
	/ɾaɟa/ ‘king’	/jɪɾa/ ‘cuminseed’	/ɡaɟəɾ/ ‘carrot’
/ɽ/ Retroflex unaspirated Trill.			
	/ɽɪɽʰ ki hæɖɖɪ/ ‘spine’	/ɡɔɽɽɪɑ/ ‘doll’	/bʰɪɽ/ ‘crowd’
/l/ Alveolar unaspirated Lateral.			

	/ləɾki/ ‘girl’	/kela/ ‘banana’	/k ^h el/ ‘games’
/j/ Palatal continuant.			
	/jɔd ^h / ‘war’	/sjāhi/ ‘ink’	/ɑj/ ‘income’

2.3 Diphthong

From quality point of view, vowel sounds are of two types: monophthong and diphthong. Monophthongs are pure vowels and diphthongs are gliding vowels. A vowel which does not change in quality may be called a monophthong and a vowel sound continually changing quality may be called a diphthong. Diphthong refers to the vowel where there is a single noticeable change in quality during a syllable. Somewhat depending upon the mood of speaker it may be realized as either diphthong or vowel cluster. Examples from the Malham language are as follows:

Vowel	Example	Gloss
/ai/	/klai/	‘wrist’
/ae/	/cae/	‘tea’
/ao/	/nao/	‘boat’
/oi/	/rəsoi g ^h ər/	‘kitchen’
/əi/	/bəɾ ^h əi/	‘carpenter’
/ʊa/	/kecʊa/	‘earthworm’

2.4 Nasalisation

Nasalisation is a way of pronouncing sounds characterized by resonance produced through the nose in course of which the velum is lowered, so that some air escapes through the nose during the production of the sound by the mouth. In Malham, nasalisation occurs with or without the influence of nasal consonants. Examples of these occurrences of nasalised vowels are shown below.

Vowel	Example	Gloss
/ã/	/cuhã/	‘mouse’
/õ/	/cõc/	‘beak’
/ĩ/	/c ^h ĩk/	‘sneeze’
/ẽ/	/b ^h ẽs/	‘buffalo’
/ẽ/	/hẽsna/	‘to laugh’
/ũ/	/pũc ^h /	‘tail’

2.5 Syllable structure

A syllable is a unit of organization for a sequence of speech sounds. A syllable is a unit of sound composed of a central peak of sonority (usually a vowel), and the consonants that cluster around this central peak. Syllables are often considered the phonological "building blocks" of words. They can influence the rhythm of a language, its prosody, its poetic meter and its stress patterns.

A syllable which ends with a vowel is called *open syllable* whereas a syllable ending in a consonant is called *closed syllable*.

Accordingly, the structure of Malham syllable can be shown below as realized from the present data.

Structure	Openness	Example	Gloss
V	[+Open]	/ɑ/	‘come’
VC	[-Open]	/i:t/	‘brick’
CV	[+Open]	/nɔ/	‘nine’
CVC	[-Open]	/lɑl/	‘red’
CVCC	[-Open]	/pətr/	‘letter’
CCVCC	[-Open]	/svərg/	‘heaven’

2.6 Syllable Pattern

The syllabic patterns found in Malham can be monosyllabic, disyllabic, tri-syllabic, and polysyllabic.

2.6.1 Monosyllabic Pattern

A word that consists of a single syllable is called a Monosyllable and is said to be monosyllabic. For example:

Pattern	Example	Gloss
V	/ɑ/	‘come’
VC	/i:t/	‘brick’
CV	/nɔ/	‘nine’
CVC	/lɑl/	‘red’
CVCC	/pətr/	‘letter’
CCVCC	/svərg/	‘heaven’

2.6.2 Disyllabic Pattern

A word that consists of two syllables is called a Disyllable and is said to be disyllabic. For example:

Pattern	Example	Gloss
V-CV	/eʃi/	‘heel’
CV-CV	/pila/	‘yellow’
VC-CV	/and ^h ɑ/	‘blind’
V-CVC	/adət/	‘habit’
CV-CVC	/kɪtab/	‘book’
CVC-CVC	/səmtəl/	‘flat’
CVC-CV	/k ^h ətra/	‘danger’
VC-CVC	/anpət ^h /	‘illiterate’

2.6.3 Tri-syllabic Pattern

A word that consists of three syllables is called a Tri-syllable and is said to be Tri-syllabic. For example:

Pattern	Example	Gloss
V-CV-CV	/akela/	‘alone’
CV-CV-CV	/aŋgɔʈ ^h ɑ/	‘thumb’
CV-CV-CVC	/jəmanət/	‘bail’
V-CVC-CVC	/asɪrvad/	‘blessing’
CV-CVC-CV	/mɔkədma/	‘case’
CVC-CV-CV	/kɔʌhaʃi/	‘axe’
CV-CV-CVC	/həʊalat/	‘lock-up’
CVC-CVC-CV	/mombətti/	‘wax candle’

2.6.4 Polysyllabic Pattern

A word that consists of more than three syllables is called a Polysyllable and is said to be Polysyllabic. For example:

Pattern	Example	Gloss
V-CV-CV-CV	/ab ^h ineta/	‘actor’
VC-CV-CV-CVC	/ɛlmɔniyəm/	‘aluminium’
CV-CV-CV-CV	/məleriya/	‘malaria’

2.7 Consonantal Clusters

A consonant cluster is a group of consonants which have no intervening vowel. The consonant clusters can be a combination of two identical as well as two non-identical consonants that generally occurs in the medial position of a word. The former is called

homogenous clusters and the latter is called heterogeneous consonant clusters. Homogenous clusters are also known as Consonants Geminata (identical consonants cluster). The occurrence of the consonant clusters is most frequently in the initial and medial position.

2.7.1 Word-initial Consonantal Clusters are as follows:

CC	Example	Gloss
pr-	/prem/	‘affection’
br-	/bramda/	‘veranda’
py-	/pya/	‘onion’
gy-	/gyani/	‘wise’
sy-	/syāhi/	‘ink’
sv-	/svərg/	‘heaven’
dy-	/dya/	‘mercy’

2.7.2 Word-final Consonantal Clusters are as follows:

CC	Example	Gloss
-mp	/bʰəkəmp/	‘earthquake’
-nd	/gend/	‘ball’
-ndʰ	/səgəndʰ/	‘scent’
-ŋd	/jʰəŋd/	‘herd’
-nkʰ	/pənkʰ/	‘feather’
-nj	/sətrənj/	‘chess’
-tr	/pətr/	‘letter’
-rg	/svərg/	‘heaven’
-st	/dəst/	‘naughty’
-st	/dost/	‘friend’
-lkʰ	/səlʰkʰ/	‘tax’

2.7.3 Homogenous Consonantal Clusters (Consonants Geminata)

CC Gem.	Example	Gloss
/-tt-/	/əttə dena/	‘to answer’
/-dd-/	/kəddu/	‘gourd’
/-tt-/	/kʰəttə/	‘sour’
/-dd-/	/kəvəddi/	‘kabaddi’
/-kk-/	/pəkka/	‘ripe’

/-cc-/	/bæcca/	‘baby’
/-jj-/	/ləjja/	‘shame’
/-ss-/	/gɔssa/	‘anger’
/-nn-/	/pænna/	‘emerald’
/-mm-/	cəmməc/	‘spoon’
/-ll-/	/bəlla/	‘bat’
/-rr-/	/vərriyə/	‘wasp’

2.7.4 Heterogeneous Consonant Clusters

CC Gem.	Example	Gloss
/-bŋ-/	/jabŋa/	‘jaw’
/-kr-/	/tokri/	‘basket’
/-ns-/	/ɔnsat ^h /	‘fifty nine’
/-rb-/	/tirb ^h ɔj/	‘triangle’
/-dr-/	/adrak/	‘ginger’
/-mŋ-/	/lomŋi/	‘fox’

3. MORPHOLOGY

Morphology deals with words and their declensional patterns as well as verbs and their conjugational patterns. Morphology of Malham is discussed under Noun, Verb, Adjectives and Adverbs.

3.1 Word Formation Process

Malham is an inflectional language. Words are formed using affixes.

3.1.1 Affixation

A large number of words in Malham are being derived from other existing words by using prefixes and suffixes. Through affixation one can derive nouns from nouns, adjectives from nouns and nouns from verbs and so on. The following word will exemplify affixation as a word formation process in Malham.

Through Suffixation

/hətya/ 'murder' + [-ra] => /hətyara/ 'murderer'

/gyan/ 'wisdom' + [-i] => /gyani/ 'wise'

Through Prefixation

[a-] + /sətoʃ/ 'satisfaction' => /asətoʃ/ 'dissatisfaction'

[nɪr-] + /doʃ/ 'fault' => /nɪrdoʃ/ 'innocent'

3.1.2 Reduplication

Reduplication is a morphological process in which a root or stem or part of it is repeated to create a new lexical item. It may be partial reduplication or full reduplication. The following word will exemplify reduplication as a word formation process in Malham. Examples from Malham are given below:

/gʰəɾ/ + /gʰəɾ/ => kʰəɾ ~ kʰəɾ 'knocking sound'

/bəɾe/ + /bəɾe/ => bəɾe ~ bəɾe 'very big'

3.1.3 Compounding

Compounding is a process of word formation in which person attaches two or more words together to make them one word. The following word will exemplify compounding as a word formation process in Malham.

Noun + Noun = Derived Noun

/ʃvet/ ‘white’ + /ambə/ ‘cloth’ => /ʃvetambə/ ‘people wearing white clothes’

/nil/ ‘blue’ + /kəŋtʰ/ ‘throat’ => /niləkəŋtʰ/ ‘the one with blue throat’

Word Class

Words are grouped into classes on the basis of their form and function, i.e., on the basis of their phonological, morphological and syntactic properties. The word class set up with nouns, verbs, adverbs, adjectives, post-positions, particles and function words. While the nouns and verb formed with morphological rules, the rest of the word classes formed on syntactic reason. The pronouns also form a sub-class of nouns as they too are declined for case. Affixation (Prefixation & Suffixation), Reduplication and the compounding are prominent morphological processes for the formation of the words as presented above.

3.1.4 Noun

A part of speech, inflected for case, denoting a tangible or intangible entity, referring to objects in the non-linguistic world or to concepts which are considered as forming entities parallel to real-world entities. Examples are as follows:

/cəndərma/	‘moon’
/bəcca/	‘baby’
/cɪɾya/	‘bird’
/ram/	‘Ram’
/sərkə/	‘government’

3.1.5 Pronoun

A grammatical component referring to a noun formerly mentioned and thus serving a deictic or anaphoric function. Examples are given below:

/təm/	‘you’
/mera/	‘my’
/təmhara/	‘your’
/soyã tum/	‘yourself’

3.1.6 Adjective

A grammatical constituent, the main syntactic role of which is to qualify a noun or noun phrase, providing additional information concerning the subject or object signified. Examples are:

/bərɑ/	‘big’
/kʰali/	‘empty’
/bɔra/	‘bad’
/bʰari/	‘heavy’

3.1.7 Verb

A part of speech without case inflection, but inflected for tense, person and number, signifying an activity or process, whether ongoing, completed or undergone. The main action of the verb is expressed in the first part. Examples are:

/torna/	‘to break’
/morna/	‘to bend’
/kaɽna/	‘to bite’
/bandʰna/	‘to bind’

3.1.8 Adverb

A part of speech with or without inflection that is a modifier of a verb. Examples:

/dʰire se/	‘slowly’
/roj/	‘daily’
/bad me/	‘afterwards’
/ʃam/	‘evening’

3.1.9 Postposition

Postposition is the part of speech that shows the relation of the noun or pronoun to some other word in a sentence. Examples from Malham are:

/pər/	‘on’
/picʰe/	‘behind’
/me/	‘in’
/pas/	‘near’

3.2 Noun morphology

Noun morphology deals with the forms and classification of nouns, pronouns and their declensional/ inflectional pattern in association with person, number, gender, and adjective etc. The nouns in the language are generally marked by two numbers (singular and

plural) and two genders (i.e. masculine, feminine); and mostly seven case forms (nominative, accusative, dative, ablative, genitive, locative and instrumental).

3.2.1 Nouns

The Noun is a word class which takes number, gender and case markers. The nouns functions as a subject or an object in a construction and it denotes person, place, thing etc.

3.2.1.1 Proper Noun

Example:

/sukrə gərəh/	‘venus’
/surƏ/	‘sun’
/cəndərma/	‘moon’

3.2.1.2 Common Noun

Example:

/nədi/	‘river’
/gərəh/	‘planet’
/bələk/	‘child’

3.2.1.3 Mass Noun

Example:

/koyla/	‘coal’
/cini/	‘sugar’
/nəmək/	‘salt’

3.2.1.4 Count Noun

Example:

/t ^h ali/	‘plate’
/kursi/	‘chair’
/caku/	‘knife’

3.2.1.5 Collective Noun

Example:

/sərkar/	‘government’
/pulis/	‘police’
/əp ^h is/	‘office’

3.2.1.6 Concrete Noun

Example:

/t ^h ali/	‘plate’
----------------------	---------

/loṭha/	‘pestle’
/caku/	‘knife’

3.2.1.7 Abstract Noun

Example:

/dukʰ/	‘grief’
/jələn/	‘jealous’
/prem/	‘affection’

3.2.2 Person

Person is categorised into three i.e. first, second, and third. They have different morphological realization and they are realized differently in terms of syntactic agreement markings on the verb. Such markings are overt in agreement as in the following examples:

vəh	bəjər	jati	hə
3SG-NOM	market	go.3SG.F	be.PRS.3SG
‘She goes to the market.’			

kəttə	bʰōkəttə	hə
dog.3SG	bark	be.PRS.3SG
‘The dog barks.’		

In the examples above, the features of third person subject agree with the verb.

3.2.3 Number

Number which refers to a grammatical category marked morphologically at the noun or noun phrases. Number can be either singular or plural. From the provided data it can be seen that there are two numbers in Malham language: singular and plural. The singular number is unmarked.

Singular		Plural	
/ləṭka/	‘boy’	/ləṭkō/	‘boys’
/bəcca/	‘child’	/bəcce/	‘children’
/gʰoṭa/	‘horse’	/gʰoṭe/	‘horses’
/ṭokəṭi/	‘basket’	/ṭokəṭiyā/	‘baskets’
/kəhani/	‘story’	/kəhaniyā/	‘stories’
/ləṭki/	‘girl’	/ləṭkiyā/	‘girls’
/kɪtab/	‘book’	/kɪtabē/	‘books’

3.3.4 Gender

Gender which refers to a grammatical category is a language specific characteristic. Gender which is either masculine or feminine is not always morphologically marked in Malham. In most of the cases gender is marked lexically. However, it is also derived by suffixation, suppletion or phonological change in Malham.

In Malham, the gender features are marked on an individual lexical item as follows:

Masculine		Feminine	
/pita/	‘father’	/mã/	‘mother’
/pərɔʃ/	‘male’	/ɪstri/	‘female’
/bɛl/	‘bull’	/gæ/	‘cow’
/pəɟi/	‘turban’	/kɪtab/	‘book’

In Malham, the gender features are marked through suffixation as follows:

Masculine		Feminine	
/pəti/	‘husband’	/pətni/	‘wife’
/jeːtʰ/	‘husband’s brother’	/jeːtʰani/	‘husband’s brother’ wife
/səmdʰi/	‘son-in-law’s father’	/səmdʰən/	‘son-in-law’s mother’

Gender marking may be done through vowel modification in Malham as follow:

Masculine		Feminine	
/sala/	‘wife’s brother’	/sali/	‘wife’s siter’
/mosa/	‘mother’s sister’s husband’	/mosi/	‘mother’s sister husband’
/lətka/	‘boy’	/lətki/	‘girl’
/gʰoɾa/	‘horse’	/gʰoɾi/	‘mare’

3.2.4 Case

Case or case marker is a grammatical category which establishes a kind of relationship between the noun phrase(s) in the sentence with the help of the semantic value of the verb. In Malham, case may or may not be marked morphologically. The case marker present in Malham are as follows:

- Nominative Case
- Accusative Case
- Dative Case
- Instrumental Case
- Ablative Case

- Genitive Case
- Locative Case

3.2.4.1 Nominative Case

The nominative case generally marks the subject of a verb or the predicate noun or predicate adjective which is either a noun or a pronoun. In Malham, the marker for nominative is null (Ø) as follows:

ʊðh	bəjər	jati	hɛ
3SG-NOM	market	go.3SG.F	be.PRS.3SG

‘She goes to the market.’

ʊðh	ʊdʰər	kʰəɽi	hɛ
3SG-NOM	there	stand	be.PRS.3SG

‘She stands there.’

sərkar-Ø	gəribo-ko	pəsa	deti	hɛ
Government-NOM	poor-DAT	money	give.3SG.F	be.PRS.3SG

‘The Government gives money to poor.’

3.2.4.2 Accusative Case

Accusative case is the case in nominative-accusative languages that marks certain syntactic functions, usually direct objects. In Malham, the marker for Accusative is null (/Ø/) as follows:

/mẽ	roɽi-Ø	kʰata	hũ/
1SG	bread-ACC	eat-1SG.M	be.PRS.1SG

‘I eat bread.’

/ʊðh	bəjər-Ø	jati	hɛ/
3SG-NOM	market-ACC	go.3SG.F	be.PRS.3SG

‘She goes to the market.’

3.2.4.3 Dative Case

The dative case designates the indirect object of a transitive verb. Nouns having the role of recipient (as of things given), beneficiary of an action, or possessor of an item are datives. The context plays a crucial factor in differentiating between dative and accusative. In Malham, the dative marker is /-ko/ as in the following:

/sərkar-Ø	gəribo-ko	pəsa	deti	hɛ/
government-NOM	poor-DAT	money	give	be.PRS.3SG

‘The Government gives money to poor.’

/ram-ne syam-ko kɪtab dɪya/
 ram-ERG shyam-DAT book give.3SG
 ‘Ram gave the book to Shyam.’

3.2.4.4 Instrumental Case

This case is used to denote instrument with which the action is performed. In Malham, the Instrumental case marker is realized as /-se/ as follows:

/meri kələm-se lɪkʰo/
 1SG.GEN pen-INS write
 ‘Write with my pen’

/kēci-se bəl-ko kaṭa jata hai/
 scissors-INS hair-ACC cut go be
 ‘The hair is cut with scissors.’

/ram-ne mere kələm-se cɪtʰi lɪkʰi/
 ram-ERG 1SG.GEN pen-INS letter write.PFV.3SG
 ‘Ram wrote the letter with my pen.’

3.2.4.5 Ablative Case

Ablative case is a case that expresses movement of the subject or the object from one place to another either at the spatial plane or at the temporal plane is expressed by the ablative case. In this language ablative case marker is /-se/ as follows:

/bəcə-ne peṭ-se pʰəl tora/
 Child.3SG-ERG tree-ABL fruit pluck.3SG
 ‘The child plucked the fruit from the tree.’

/peṭ-se pətte ɟɪrte hẽ/
 tree-ABL leaf.PL fall be.PRS.3PL
 ‘The leaves fall from the tree.’

3.2.4.6 Genitive Case or Possessive Case

Genitive case is a case in which the referent of the marked noun is the possessor of the referent of another noun. In Malham, the Genitive case markers are realized lexically that is by taking genitive form of a pronoun as follows:

/vəh ɔska caku hɛ/
 that 3SG.GEN knife be.PRS.3SG
 ‘That is his knife.’

/ʊəh səb meri kɪtabẽ hẽ/
 that all 1SG.GEN book.PL be. PRS.3PL
 ‘Those are my books.’

3.3.4.7 Locative Case

Locative case is a case that expresses location at the referent of the noun it marks. The location of the subject or object is expressed by the locative case marker. In Malham, the locative case marker is realized as follows:

/mere bəcə ɪskul-me hẽ/
 1SG.Gen child.PL school-LOC be.PRS.3PL
 ‘My children are in the school.’

/tota peɾ pər hẽ/
 parrot tree LOC be-PRS.3SG
 ‘The parrot is on the tree.’

3.2.4.7 Ergative Case

Ergativity is defined as ‘.... grammatical pattern in which the subject of an intransitive clause is treated in the same way as the object of a transitive clause, and differently from transitive subject’ (Dixon 1994:1).

/ram-ne mere kələm-se cɪtʃhi lɪkkʰi/
 ram-ERG 1SG.GEN pen-INS letter write.PFV.3SG
 ‘Ram wrote the letter with my pen.’

/ram-ne syam-ko kɪtab dɪya/
 ram-ERG shyam-DAT book give.PFV.3SG
 ‘Ram gave the book to Shyam.’

3.2.5 Numerals

Numerals refer to the symbol that represents the number. Malham has cardinal, ordinal and fractional number systems.

3.2.5.1 Cardinal Number

Cardinal Number is those numerals which used for counting. The commonly used form of cardinal number found in Malham in following ways:

Cardinal Number	Gloss
/ek/	one
/do/	two

/tin/	three
/car/	four
/pāc/	five
/c ^h ε/	six
/sat/	seven
/at ^h /	eight
/nɔ/	nine
/dəs/	ten
/gyarəh/	eleven
/barəh/	twelve
/terəh/	thirteen
/caudəh/	fourteen
/pəndrəh/	fifteen
/soləh/	sixteen
/sətrəh/	seventeen
/t ^h arəh/	eighteen
/ɔnnɪs/	nineteen
/bis/	twenty
/so/	hundred
/tin so/	three hundred
/pāc so/	five hundred
/həjar/	thousand

3.2.5.2 Ordinal Number

Ordinal Number is those numerals which used for denoting position or order in a series. The ordinal number found in Malham as follows:

Ordinal Number	Gloss
/pəhela/	first
/dusra/	second
/tisra/	third

3.3.5.3 Fractional

Fractional are also found in Malham as follows:

Fractional Number in Malham	Gloss
/pura/	full
/pao/	quarter
/ad ^h a/	half
/d ^h ai/	two and a half

3.3 Verb Morphology

Verb is a word class that marks Tense-Aspect- Modal- Personal markers distinguished by number and gender. In inflectional languages, verbs may be inflected for Tense- Aspect- Mood along with other constituents in terms of Person, Number and Gender. Accordingly, Verb Morphology deals with the forms and classification of verbs, and their pattern in association etc.

Verb stem is the base of a verb denoting action. The classification of verbs and the types of verbs are presented below.

3.3.1 Classification of Verbs

Verb stems may be classified as simple or complex. A simple stem consists of only one root. A complex stem has a root followed by one or more derivational or formative elements.

3.3.1.1 Simple Verb

A simple verb is composed of monomorphemic single root. For example:

/k ^h ɪlana/	‘to feed’
/ubalθna/	‘to boil

3.3.1.2 Compound Verb

A Compound verb consists of more than one root and may include one or more suffixes. For example:

/c ^h apa marna/	‘to raid
/j ^h əgɾa kərna/	‘to quarrel’

3.3.2 Transitivity

The number of arguments that a verb takes is called its transitivity. Based on transitivity the verb stems of Malham can be further divided into three sub-classes as follows.

3.3.2.1 Intransitive Verb

Those verbs which take only one argument is referred to as intransitive verb. The occurrence of intransitive verb (/janda/ 'to go') can be observed as follows:

/mẽ	q ^h ər	jata	hũ/
1SG	house	go	be.PRS.1SG
'I go to the house.'			

3.3.2.2 Transitive Verb

Those verbs which take two arguments are referred to as transitive verb in Malham. The occurrence of transitive verb (/k^handa/ 'to eat') can be observed as follows:

/mẽ	roṭi	k ^h ata	hũ/
1SG	bread	eat	be.PRS.1SG
'I eat bread.'			

3.3.2.3 Ditransitive Verb

Those verbs which take three arguments are referred to as ditransitive verb. The occurrence of ditransitive verb (/denda/ 'to give') can be observed as follows:

/ram-ne	syam-ko	kitab	diya/
ram-ERG	shyam-DAT	book	give.PFV.3SG
'Ram gave the book to Shyam.'			

3.3.3 Finiteness

A finite verb is a verb form which occurs in an independent clause and is fully inflected according to the inflectional categories marked on verbs in the language.

The components of finite verb are tense, aspect, and mood. In Malham, finite verbs are formed by adding different suffixes to the verb stem and different forms are available for different person and tense. Thus, the finite verbal formation is $\checkmark + \text{tense marker or } \pm \text{aspect marker} + \text{PNG marker (person + number + gender)}$.

3.3.3.1 Tense

Tense is to locate or identify an action in the time scale as Hockett defines the tense as “a grammatical category showing different locations of an event in time” (Hockett, 1970, pp-167). Verbs in Malham have three ways composition in tense (Present, Past, and Future) and it gets morphologically marked as is shown below.

3.3.3.1.1 Present Tense

It indicates the action that takes place when the utterance is uttered. Accordingly, the present tense person wise is formed in the following way.

/mẽ cɪɾyã dek^hta hũ/
1SG bird see be.PRS.1SG
'I see the bird.'

/tɔm cɪɾyã dek^hte ho/
2SG bird see be.PRS.2SG
'You see the bird.'

/vəh cɪɾya dek^hta hɛ/
3SG bird see be.PRS.3SG
'He sees the bird.'

/ve cɪɾya dek^hte hẽ/
3PL bird see be.PRS.3PL
'They see the bird.'

3.3.3.1.2 Past Tense

Past tense refers to an event which happened before the time of utterance. Accordingly, the past tense in Malham is formed person wise in following ways.

/mẽ-ne cɪɾyã dek^ha t^ha/
1SG-ERG bird see be.PST.1SG
'I saw the bird.'

/tɔm-ne cɪɾyã dek^ha t^ha/
2SG-ERG bird see be.PST.2SG
'You saw the bird.'

/vəh cɪɾyã dek^hi t^hi/
3SG bird see be.PST.3SG
'She saw the bird.'

/ʊnhõ-ne cɪɽyã dek^hɑ t^hɑ/
 3PL-ERG bird see.PFV be.PST.3PL
 ‘They saw the bird.’

3.3.3.1.3 Future Tense

Future tense refers to an event which will take place after the time of utterance. Accordingly, the person wise future tense is formed in the following ways:

/mẽ cɪɽyã dek^hũɑ/
 1SG bird see-FUT.1SG
 ‘I will see the bird.’

/həm cɪɽyã dek^hẽge/
 1PL bird see-FUT.1PL
 ‘We will see the bird.’

/ɑp log cɪɽyã dek^hẽge/
 2PL bird see-FUT.2PL
 ‘You (pl.) will see the bird.’

/ʊθh cɪɽyã dek^hegi/
 3SG bird see-FUT.3SG.F
 ‘She will see the bird.’

/ye log cɪɽyã dek^hẽge/
 3PL bird see-FUT.3PL
 ‘They will see the bird.’

3.3.3.2 Aspect

Aspect is a grammatical category associated with verbs that expresses a temporal view of the event or state expressed by the verb. Aspectual information implies is related with duration, perfection, habituality etc. Malham has three aspects interpreted in different tenses as follows:

- Habitual Aspect
- Progressive Aspect
- Perfective Aspect

3.3.3.2.1 Habitual Aspect

The Habitual Aspect denotes the action of the verb takes place from time to time. Marking for habitual aspect of tenses of Malham are as follows:

/surəj purəb mē ʊgəta hɛ/
 sun east LOC rise be.PRS.3SG
 ‘The sun rises in the east.’

/həm roj gay duhəte hẽ/
 1PL everyday cow milk-HAB be.PRS.1PL
 ‘We milk the cow’s every day.’

/mē nɔ bəje apʰɪs jaya kərəta tʰa/
 1SG nine o’clock office go do-HAB be.PST.1SG
 ‘I used to go to office at 9 o’clock.’

3.3.3.2.2 Progressive Aspect

In progressive aspect the action of the verb continues. Progressive aspect in all the three tenses is marked as follows:

/mē cɪɽɪyã dekʰ rəha hũ/
 1SG bird see PROG be.PRS.1SG
 ‘I am seeing the bird.’

/həm cɪɽɪyã dekʰ rəhe hẽ/
 1PL bird see PROG be.PRS.1PL
 ‘We are seeing the bird.’

/mē cɪɽɪyã dekʰ rəha tʰa/
 1SG bird see PROG be.PST.1SG
 ‘I was seeing the bird.’

/həm cãnd dekʰ rəhe hõge/
 1SG moon see PROG be.FUT.1SG
 ‘I will be seeing the moon.’

/həm cɪɽɪyã dekʰ rəhe hõge/
 2PL bird see PROG be.FUT.1PL
 ‘We will be seeing the bird.’

3.4.3.2.3 Perfective Aspect

Perfective aspect is an aspect that expresses a temporal view of an event or state as a simple whole, apart from the consideration of the internal structure of the time in which it occurs. Perfective aspect in all the three tenses is marked as follows in Malham.

/mẽ cɪɽyã ko dek^h cɔka hũ/
 1SG bird ACC see PFV be.PRS.1SG
 ‘I have seen the bird.’

/tɔm cɪɽyã dek^h cɔke ho/
 2SG bird see PFV be.PRS.2SG
 ‘You have seen the bird.’

/mẽ cɪɽyã dek^h cɔka t^ha/
 1SG bird see PFV be.PST.1SG
 ‘I had seen the bird.’

/tɔm cɪɽyã dek^h cɔke t^he/
 2SG bird see PFV be.PST.2SG
 ‘You had seen the bird.’

/vəh cɪɽyã dek^ha hɔwa hoga/
 3SG bird see PFV be.FUT.3SG
 ‘He will have seen the bird.’

/vəh cɪɽyã dek^hi hɔwi hogi/
 3SG bird see PFV be.FUT.3SG
 ‘She will have seen the bird.’

3.4.3.3 Mood

Mood is one of a set of distinctive forms that are used to signal modality. The mode or manner of a speaker is expressed by mood. It incorporates a statement, a command, a question, a doubt etc. Mood in Malham, observed from the data may be categorized as follows:

Indicative Mood

/bæcce mɔj^he dek^hte hẽ/
 child.PL 1SG-ACC see.IPFV be.PRS.3PL
 ‘The children see me.’

Imperative Mood

/yəh kitab pəɽ^ho/
 PROX.SG book read
 ‘Read this book.’

Subjunctive Mood

/tɔm k^het pər jao ya mẽ jata hũ/
 2SG field LOC go or 1SG go be.PRS.1SG
 ‘Either you go or I shall to the field.’

Optative Mood

/ʔn səb^hi ko ʔne do/
3PL all ACC come give
'Let them all come.'

Conditional Mood

/agər mē t^hik rəhū kəl ʔŋga/
COND 1SG well remain-1SG tomorrow come-FUT.1SG
'If I am well, I will come tomorrow.'

3.3.4 Non-finite Verb

In Malham a non-finite verb is any of several verb form which cannot serve as the root of an independent clause. In other words, a non-finite may be described as 'a verb derived words' which has ability to serve as a noun or adjective. It may further be categorized into Infinitives, Gerund and Participles as follows:

1.1.1.1 Infinitives

/mē-ne təm-ko ʔne ke liye kəha t^ha/
1SG-ERG 2SG-ACC come.INF of for say be.PST.1SG
'I told you to come.'

1.1.1.2 Gerund

/tərəna sehət ke liye acc^ha hɛ/
Swimming health of for good be.PRS
'Swimming is good for health.'

1.1.1.3 Participle

/ʋəh giɾe həwe p^həlo ko ɪkətt^ha ki t^hi/
3SG.F fall become fruit ACC collect do be.PST.3SG
'She collected the fallen fruits.'

3.4 Negation

Negation in Malham is a morphosyntactic operation by which a lexical item denies or inverts the meaning of another lexical item or construction. This may be done by introducing a negative (a lexical item which expresses negation) or by the process of inverting the meaning of pre-existing lexical item as in follows:

/jəh k^hane layek nəhi hɛ/
Dem eat fit NEG be.PRS.3SG
'This is not edible'

/mere pas kuch^h nəhi hɛ/
 1SG near anything NEG be.PRS.3SG
 ‘I have nothing with me.’

3.5 Causation:

Causative is basically a form where the subject causes something or someone to do or be something and the process is known as causation or causativization. In Malham, causativization is done as follows:

/mẽ pani ubalθa hũ/
 1SG water boil.CAUSE be.PRS.1SG
 ‘I boil water.’

/mẽ bæcce-ko kʰilata hũ/
 1SG child-DAT eat.CAUSE be.PRS.1SG
 ‘I feed the baby.’

3.6 Passivization:

Passivization is basically the transformation of a sentence from an active form to a passive form. The realization of passive sentences in Malham may be observed as follows:

/roʈi mere doara kʰaya ja rəha hɛ/
 bread-ACC 1SG.DAT by eat.PFV go PROG be.PRS.1SG
 ‘Bread is being eaten by me.’

/təmhara koʈ silvaya ja rəha hɛ/
 2SG.GEN coat stitch go PROG be.PRS.1SG
 ‘Your coat is being stitched.’

3.7 Adverb

An adverb is a category that qualifies the meaning of a verb, adjective, other adverb, clause, and sentence or any other word or phrase, except that it does not include the adjectives and determiners that directly modify nouns. The types of adverbs observed from the present language variable are as follows:

1.1.1 Adverb of Manner

/dʰire se bat kəro/
 slowly Instr talk do
 ‘Speak slowly.’

1.1.2 Adverb of Time

/cɑr bəʒe ke bɑd ɑo/
Four o'clock Gen after come
'Come after 4 O'clock.'

1.1.3 Adverb of Place

/mẽ yəhã ata hũ/
1SG here come be.PRS.1SG
'I come here.'

1.1.4 Adverb of Direction

/surəʒ purəb dɪsɑ me ʊɡtɑ hɛ/
Sun east direction in rise.IPFV be.PRS
'The sun rises in the east.'

4. SYNTAX

Syntax is that level of linguistics which deals with how words are joined together to form grammatical sentences. The syntactic sketch of Malham is drawn below.

4.1 Word Order

The term word order refers to the order of sentential elements. The common word orders found in Malham is SOV.

Order of Subject Object and Verb = **SOV**

/mẽ cɪɾyã dek^hta hũ/
1SG bird see be.PRS.1SG
'I see the bird.'

Order of Subject and Verb = **SV**

/kɔtta b^hõkθa hɛ/
dog bark be.PRS.3SG
'The dog barks.'

Order of Object and Verb = **OV**

/g^has hɛtao/
grass remove
'Remove the grass.'

Order of Noun and Postposition: (**Noun + Postposition**)

/tɛbəl pər k^həɾe ho jaɔ/
Table LOC stand be go
'Stand on the table.'

Order of Genitive and Noun: (**Genitive + Noun**)

/mere hat^h/
1SG.GEN hand
'My hand'

Order of Adjective and Noun: (**Adjective + Noun**)

/acc^ha ləɾka/
good boy
'The good boy'

Order of Adverb and Verb: (**Adverb + Verb**)

/dʰire se bat kəro/
Slowly Instr talk do
'Speak slowly.'

Order of Auxiliaries and Main Verb: (**Auxiliaries follows Main Verb**)

/mẽ ciɽyã dekʰta hũ/
1SG bird see be.PRS.1SG
'I see the bird.'

Order of Negation and Verb: (**Verb follows Negation**)

/ʊəh kam nəhi ki hɛ/
3SG.F work NEG do be.PRS.3SG
'She has not done the work.'

4.2 Types of Sentences

The sentences observed from the present language variable can be categorized on the basis of formation (Simple, Complex and Compound) and on the basis of function (Declarative, Interrogative, Imperative and Exclamatory) as follows:

4.2.1 On the Basis of Formation

4.2.1.1 Simple Sentence

A sentence made up of only one clause. For example:

/mẽ ciɽyã dekʰta hũ/
1SG bird see be.PRS.1SG
'I see the bird.'

4.2.1.2 Complex Sentence

A sentence which has two or more clause of unequal rank. For example:

/ʃo admi kəl mər gəjɑ vo ek gəjək tʰɑ/
REL man yesterday die go.PFV Dem one singer be.PST.3SG
'The man who died yesterday was a singer.'

4.2.1.3 Compound Sentence

A sentence which has two or more clause of equal rank. For example:

/dɪn mē kam kəro or rat ko so jao/
Day LOC work do and night LOC sleep go
'Work during the day and sleep at night.'

4.2.2 On the Basis of Function

4.2.2.1 Declarative Sentence

A sentence which expresses something in the form of answer or statement. For example:

/vəh k^het pər jayegə/
3SG field LOC go.FUT.3SG
'He will go to the field.'

4.2.2.2 Interrogative Sentence

A sentence which helps to ask or enquire something. For example:

/ap kya k^hate hẽ/
2SG what eat be.PRS.2SG
'What do you eat?'

4.2.2.3 Imperative Sentence

A sentence which is used for advising, ordering, commanding, requesting etc. For example:

/təmhəri beɟi-ko bəlaə/
2SG.GEN daughter-DAT call
'Call your daughter.'

4.2.2.4 Exclamatory Sentence

A sentence which exclaims sudden feeling of surprise, liking, disliking etc.

/təm kɪtəne ləmbe ho gəye ho/
2SG how tall be go be
'How tall you have grown!'

4.3 Phrases

A phrase is a syntactic structure which acts like a constituent of a sentence. It may be realised in Malham as Noun Phrase (NP), Verb Phrase (VP), Adjectival Phrase (AP), Postpositional Phrase (PP) and Adverbial Phrase (AP) as follows:

4.3.1 Noun Phrase

A word or group of words which has a nominal head. For example:

/cətər ləʃka/
clever boy
'The clever boy'

4.3.2 Verb Phrase

A word or group of words which has a verbal head. For example:

/mẽ cɪɾyã dekʰta hũ/
1SG bird see be
'I see the bird.'

4.3.3 Adjectival Phrase

A word or group of words which has an adjectival head. For example:

/cətər ləʃka/
clever boy
'The clever boy'

4.3.4 Postpositional Phrase

A word or group of words which has a postpositional head. For example:

/təbəl pər kʰəɾe ho jaɔ/
table on stand be go
'Stand on the table.'

4.3.5 Adverbial Phrase

A word or group of words which has an adverbial head. For example:

/vəh tej dauɾəta hɛ/
3SG fast run be.PRS.3SG
'He runs fast.'

4.4 Clauses:

Clause is defined as a group of words which has a conjugated verb and its subject. The types of clause observed in Malham are as follows:

4.4.1 Main Clause

A clause which does not depend upon another clause to make a complete sentence. For example:

/yeh vəhi ɑdmi hɛ jisse kəl mẽ mɪla tʰɑ/
Dem Dem man be REL tomorrow 1SG meet be.PST.1SG
'This is the man whom I met yesterday.'

4.4.2 Subordinate Clause

A clause which depends upon another clause to make a complete sentence. For example:

/yeh vəhi ɑdmi hɛ jisse kəl mẽ mɪla tʰɑ/
Dem COREL man be REL tomorrow 1SG meet be.PST.1SG
'This is the man whom I met yesterday.'

4.4.3 Relative Clause

Subordinate clauses which begin with relative pronouns. For example:

/ʃo ɑdmi ləməba hɛ us-se kəl mẽ mɪla tʰɑ/
REL man tall AUX DEM tomorrow 1SG meet be.PST
'I met the man yesterday who is tall.'

4.4.4 Correlative Clause

A Clause with correlative pronoun and a demonstrative. For example:

/ʃo CD sale pəɾ hɛ Maya us CD ko kʰəɾidegi/
REL CD sale on be maya Dem CD Dat buy
'The CD which is on sale, Maya will buy that CD.'

The clauses in above sentences are the examples of respective clauses under which it has been mentioned.

4.5 Negation:

Negation in Malham is a morphosyntactic operation by which a lexical item denies or inverts the meaning of another lexical item or construction. This may be done by introducing a negative item (a lexical item which expresses negation) or by the process of inverting the meaning of pre-existing lexical item as in the following.

/jəh kʰane ləjəθk nəhi hɛ/
Dem eat able NEG be.PRS.3SG
'This is not edible'

/mere pas kuch^h nəhi hɛ/
 1SG near anything NEG be.PRS.3SG
 ‘I have nothing with me.’

4.6 Causativisation:

Causative is basically a form that a subject cause something or someone to do or be something and the process is known as causation or causativisation. In Malham, causativisation may be observed as follows:

/mɛ pani ubalta hũ/
 1SG water boil.CAUS be.PRS.1SG
 ‘I boil water.’

/mɛ bəcce-ko kʰilata hũ/
 1SG child-DAT eat.CAUS be.PRS.1SG
 ‘I feed the baby.’

4.7 Passivization:

Passivization is basically the transformation of a sentence from an active form to a passive form. The realization of passive sentences in Malham may be observed as follows:

/roʈi mere dwara kʰaya ja rəha hɛ/
 Bread-ACC 1SG.DAT by eat.PFV go PROG be.PRS.1SG
 ‘Bread is being eaten by me.’

/təmhara koʈ silvaya ja rəha hɛ/
 2SG.GEN coat stitch.PFV PASS PROG be.PRS.1SG
 ‘Your coat is being stitched.’

To conclude, Malham belongs to Indo-Aryan language family. The basic word order is SOV. There is no written literature available for this language/variety. Malham is a dialect of Hindi as it is very similar to it.

5. TEXT

/do dost or ek b^halu/

‘Two friends and a bear’

/ramu aur siyam do dost t^he/

‘Ramu and Shyam were two friends.’

/ve jāgal me ja rahe t^he/

‘They were passing through a forest.’

/ṛnhone ek dusre se bada kiya t^ha ki vah kisi b^hi k^hatre me sat^h rahēge/

‘They promised each other that they will remain together in case of any danger.’

/ek din ve ek jōgāl se ja rāhe t^he, samāne se ek b^halu aya/

‘One day, they were passing through a forest, there came a bear.’

/b^hlu ko dek^h kār dono dost bahōt dār gāye/

‘Both friends were afraid seeing the bear.’

/ramu dār ke mare ek peṛ par caḍ^h gāya/

‘Being afraid, Ramu climbed a tree.’

/siyam ko peṛ pār cḍ^hāna nāhi ata t^ha/

‘Shyam did not know to climb a tree.’

/siyamu bola mēj^he peṛ pār cḍ^hāna nāhi ata he/

‘Shyam said that I do not know to climb a tree.’

/kirāpiya mēri mādāt kārō/

‘Please help me.’

/ramu ne koyi jābap nāhi diya/

‘But Ramu did not respond.’

/dēk^hi or mayoos hōkar siyam sāṣ rok kar jāmin pār let gāya/

‘In fear and grief, Shyam lay down on the ground breathless.’

/jāld hi vāhā b^halu ā pahōca/

‘The bear came there quickly.’

/jamiin par leṭe siyam ko dek^h kar ṣṣakē pas gāya or ṣṣe sōghāne lāga/

‘Seeing Shyam lying on the ground, the bear came near him and started to smell him.’

/kʰɔcʰ dɛr sʊŋʱnɛ kɛ bad vʊh siyam ko vʊhi cʰor kʰɔr cʰla gʊya/

‘After smelling him for some time, he left Shyam there and went away.’

/pɛd par bɛtʰɛ ramu ko laga ki bʰalu siyam ko kan mɛ kʰɔcʰ bol ke gʊya/

‘Sitting on the tree, Ramu felt that the bear has said something in Shyam’s ear.’

/vʊh jʊldi se nice aya or siyam se pucʰa/

‘He came down quickly and asked Shyam.’

/dost mɛrɛ vʊh bʰalu tʊmʊhare kan mɛ kya bola/

‘My friend, what did the bear say in your ears?’

/siyam jʊmin se ʊtʰa or ramu sɛ bola/

‘Shyam stood up from the ground and told Ramu.’

/vʊh bʰalu mʊjʰɛ bola ki jʰɔtɛ or svarʊtʰi logo par bʰarosa mʊt kʰɔro/

‘That bear told me not to believe in false friend.’

/jo tʊmko mʊsibʊt mɛ akela cʰor ke cʰla jae/

‘Who leave you alone in case of any danger.’

/itʊna kah ke siyam vʊhʱ se akela cʰl diya/

‘Saying this Shyam left from there.’

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1. INTRODUCTION

Malyani is only reported to be spoken in small pockets of the Salarpur Khadar, Noida, Ghaziabad district of Uttar Pradesh. The mother tongue Malyani is spoken by a very limited number of the population. Thus, there does not exist varieties of this mother tongue. Its use is also limited to homes and peer groups only.

Malyani is a dialect of Hindi and in most ways, very similar to it. It is linguistically very close to Hindi and it has a lot of borrowings from Khari-Boli, another language/mother tongue spoken in the area.

1.1 Family Affiliation

Malyani, a dialect of Hindi belongs to the Indo-Aryan language family. It is linguistically closest to modern Hindi and Khari-Boli which is predominantly spoken in the area where Malyani is reported to have been spoken.

1.2 Location

Malyani is reported to be spoken in the western part of Uttar Pradesh i.e., Salarpur Khadar, Noida, Ghaziabad district in India. The large scale and drastic changes in the landscape of the region has led to migration of Malyani speaking population. As the number of the mother tongue speaking population suggests, they may also be groups of people who live under one flyover to the other and thus, they are constantly on the move. It is thus very difficult to trace them at any particular location.

1.3 Speaker's Strength: Language-Mother Tongue-Bilingualism

The number of Malyani speaking population is very limited and because of tremendous pressure from dominant languages/mother tongue surrounding them, their number is extremely small. Another reason for their small number is due to the socio-economic and political compulsions. All the people speaking this variety also speak Hindi and Khari-Boli.

1.4 Socio-linguistic Information

The mother tongue Malyani is only reported to be spoken in small pockets of the Ghaziabad district of Uttar Pradesh. The mother tongue Malyani is spoken by a very limited number of the population. Thus, there does not exist varieties of this mother tongue. Its use is also limited to homes and peer groups only. Malyani is also not used in formal communication such as medium of instruction or teaching in schools, public places, markets, administration, judiciary, news or print media etc. Malyani doesn't have the tradition of written literature. The

existence of any oral literature or folklore is also not known. The Malyani speakers claim to be able to write using Devanagari script.

1.5 Present Study

The data for Malyani was collected under the Mother Tongue Survey of India conducted by Language Division, Office of the Registrar General, India in collaboration with Directorate of Census Operation, Office of the Registrar General, India of the respective states. The data was collected based on settlement type, gender and age of the informant. Thus, every mother tongue had either four or eight samples. The data from every sample was then transcribed and a sketch of the mother tongue prepared by linguistic resource person (LRPs) engaged for the purpose from different state and central universities spread across India. These sketches were then consolidated by professors in linguistics or linguists from Language Division.

The mother tongue data for Malyani was collected from Salarpur Khadar, Noida City, Gautam Buddh Nagar district of Uttar Pradesh. The informants were Smt. Alfa, and Shri Dinesh. The guide and interpreter were Smt. Preeti Verma and Smt. Sangeeta Devi. The data elicitors were Shri Nagesh Pathak, Arvind Kumar Singh and Shri Arjun Kamashi from Directorate of Census Operation, Uttar Pradesh. The transcription and analysis of the samples were done by Shri Raghwandra Singh Rajput of the HSG University and Shri Mahboob Zahid of the University of Delhi. The consolidation of the analyses was done by Shri P. Edward Vedamanickam of the Language Division. Another field visit was undertaken by me to collect more data for the present study.

2. PHONOLOGY

Phonetics is the study of sounds in any natural language and Phonology is the study of how such sounds are organized and used in natural languages. The phonological system of a language includes an inventory of sounds and their features and rules which specify how sounds interact with each other. Phonemic analysis helps in allotting all the indefinite number of sounds occurring in utterances to a definite and limited set of phonemes contrastive in at least some environment.

2.1 Consonant

The consonant chart can be construed as the following:

	Bilabial		Labio-dental	Dental		Retroflex		Palatal		Velar		Glottal
	VL	VD	VD	VL	VD	VL	VD	VL	VD	VL	VD	VL
Unaspirated	p	b		t	d	ʈ	ɖ	c	ɟ	k	g	
Aspirated	p ^h	b ^h		t ^h	d ^h	ʈ ^h	ɖ ^h	c ^h	ɟ ^h	k ^h	g ^h	
NASAL		m			n		ɳ					
IMPLOSIVE												
FRICATIVE				s			ʃ					h
TRILL					r							
FLAP							ɾ					
LATERAL					l							
Approximant			ʋ					y				

Consonant Chart

The distribution of consonants is given below. They can occur initially, medially, and finally.

Consonant	Initial		Medial		Final	
/p/	pəhaɾ	‘hill’	paɣalpəɳ	‘insanity’	taɣ	‘heat’
/p ^h /	p ^h oɾa	‘boil’	kəp ^h i	‘coffee’	səp ^h	‘aniseed (saunf)’
/b/	bəɾ ^h	‘flood’	prəti səbd	‘echo’	talab	‘pond’
/b ^h /	b ^h ap	‘steam’	cab ^h i	‘key’	jiib ^h	‘tongue’
/t/	tokni	‘mortar’	k ^h atta pan	‘acidity’	dāt	‘tooth’
/t ^h /	t ^h āɖ	‘cold’	pətt ^h əɾ	‘rock’	hāt ^h	‘elephant’
/d/	dəɭəhəɳ	‘bride’	mədan	‘ground’	parti sabd	‘echo’
/d ^h /	d ^h al	‘slope’	ādhəra	‘darkness’	gid ^h	‘vulture’
/ɖ/	ɖəɽu	‘pony’	miɽɽi	‘clay’	oɖ	‘lip’
/ɖ ^h /	ɖ ^h əɽɖ	‘cold’	bəɽ ^h na	‘to sit’	aɖ ^h	‘eight’
/ɖ/	ɖakar	‘belch’	āɖa	‘egg’	ɟəɖ	‘root’

/dʰ/	dʰayi ‘two and a half’	daɖʰi ‘beard’	baɖʰ ‘flood’
/k/	kicaɾ ‘mud’	prəʔkriti ‘nature’	baɭak ‘baby’
/kʰ/	kʰəʔtəməɭ ‘bug’	naɖʰun ‘claw’	pəʔkʰ ‘feather’
/g/	gidəɾ ‘jackal’	pəʔtəga ‘moth’	sĩg ‘horn’
/gʰ/	gʰəʔgʰa ‘snail’	məɖʰəʔk ‘toad’	baɖʰ ‘tiger’
/c/	cuhə ‘mouse’	niɖli hoʔʰ ‘lower lip’	moɖ ‘sprain’
/cʰ/	cʰik ‘sneeze’	məʔcʰli ‘fish’	məʔgəʔr məccʰ ‘crocodile’
/j/	jəʔk ‘leech’	heja ‘cholera’	məʔrij ‘patient’
/jʰ/	jʰəməʔka ‘ear-ring’	oɖʰa ‘sorcerer’	bojʰ ‘load’
/s/	səɾəʔk ‘road’	rəʔgistan ‘desert’	os ‘dew’
/ʃ/	ʃer ‘lion’	aʃəɭil ‘obscene’	kʰvaɭʃ ‘wish’
/h/	həva ‘air’	pəʔhaɾ ‘hill’	grəʔh ‘planet’
/m/	mitti ‘clay’	purnima ‘full moon’	mosam ‘weather’
/n/	nədi ‘river’	purnima ‘full moon’	rəʔgistan ‘desert’
/ŋ/		tʰəŋɖ ‘cold’	/noŋ/ ‘salt’
/ɾ/		səɾəʔk ‘road’	baɾʰ ‘flood’
/l/	ləkɾi ‘wood’	balu ‘sand’	jəʔgəɭ ‘forest’
/r/	raɖʰ ‘ash’	pirtʰbi ‘world’	pəʔttʰəʔr ‘rock’
/v/	van mahotsab ‘forest festival’		gãv ‘village’
/y/	yəʔh ‘this’	cʰaya ‘shade’	gay ‘cow’

2.2 Vowel

The vowel chart can be construed as the following:

	Unrounded		Rounded
	Front	Central	Back
High	ɪ i		ʊ u
Mid	e	ə	o
Mid-low	ɛ		ɔ
Low	a		ɑ

Vowel Chart

The distribution of vowels is given below. They can occur word initially, medially, and finally.

Vowel	Initial	Medial	Final
/ɪ/	/ɪmli/ ‘tamarind’	/b ^h ɪkari/ ‘beggar’	/c ^h atti/ ‘chest’
/i/	/ɪrsiya/ ‘jealousy’	/sitar/ ‘sitar’	/moti/ ‘pearl’
/e/	/ek/ ‘one’	/pet/ ‘tree’	/pəhle/ ‘before’
/ɛ/	/ɛlməniyə/ ‘aluminium’	/dɛs/ ‘country’	/c ^h ɛ/ ‘six’
/a/	/adrək/ ‘ginger’		
/ə/		/səṛəṛ/ ‘road’	
/ɑ/	/anamika/ ‘ring finger’	/mac ^h li/ ‘fish’	/d̪ākija/ ‘egg’
/ʊ/	/ʊpri oṭ ^h / ‘upper lip’	/mɔṭṭ ^h i/ ‘fist’	/məd ^h ʊ/ ‘honey’
/u/	/ūt/ ‘camel’	/b ^h ukəmp/ ‘earthquake’	/bālu/ ‘sand’
/o/	/ola/ ‘hail stone’	/tokni/ ‘mortar’	/lik ^h o/ ‘write’
/ɔ/		/kəp ^h i/ ‘coffee’	/ɟɔ/ ‘barley’

2.3 Diphthong

From quality point of view, vowel sounds are of two types: monophthong and diphthong. Monophthongs are pure vowels and diphthongs are gliding vowels. A vowel which does not change in quality may be called a monophthong and a vowel sound continually changing quality may be called a diphthong. Diphthong refers to the vowel where there is a single noticeable change in quality during a syllable. Somewhat depending upon the mood of speaker it may be realized as either diphthong or vowel cluster. Examples from the Malyani language are as follows:

Vowel	Example	Gloss
/ai/	/klai/	‘wrist’
/ae/	/cae/	‘tea’
/ao/	/nao/	‘boat’
/oi/	/rəsoi g ^h ər/	‘kitchen’
/əi/	/bət ^h əi/	‘carpenter’
/ʊa/	/kecʊa/	‘earthworm’

2.4 Nasalization

Nasalization is a way of pronouncing sounds characterized by resonance produced through the nose in course of which the velum is lowered, so that some air escapes through the nose during the production of the sound by the mouth. In Malyani, nasalization occurs with or without the influence of nasal consonants.

Examples of these occurrences of nasalized vowels are shown below:

Vowel	Example	Gloss
/ã/	/cuhã/	‘mouse’
/õ/	/cõc/	‘beak’
/ĩ/	/c ^h ĩk/	‘sneeze’
/ẽ/	/b ^h ẽs/	‘buffalo’
/ǣ/	/hǣsǾnɔ/	‘to laugh’
/ũ/	/pũc ^h /	‘tail’

2.5 Syllable Structure

A syllable is a unit of sound composed of a central peak of sonority (Robins 1968) and the consonants that cluster around this central peak. Syllables are often considered the phonological "building blocks" of words. A syllable may contain only one sound as a peak, one onset and a peak, one peak and a coda or a peak preceded by an onset and followed by a coda. Syllable that end on peak (vowel) is known as open syllable ([+Open]) while syllable that has consonant at last is known as close syllable ([-Open]). Onset and coda as well as peak of the syllable may have more than one phoneme in the form of cluster. The structures of syllable noticed in the present variable are as follows:

Structure	Openness	Example	Gloss
V	[+Open]	/a/	‘come’
VC	[-Open]	/i:t/	‘brick’
CV	[+Open]	/nɔ/	‘nine’
CVC	[-Open]	/lɔl/	‘red’
CVCC	[-Open]	/pətr/	‘letter’
CCVCC	[-Open]	/svərg/	‘heaven’

2.6 Syllable Pattern

The syllabic patterns found in Malyani can be monosyllabic, disyllabic, trisyllabic, and polysyllabic.

2.6.1 Monosyllabic Pattern

A word that consists of a single syllable is called a Monosyllable and is said to be monosyllabic.

For example:

Pattern	Example	Gloss
V	/a/	‘come’
VC	/i:t/	‘brick’
CV	/no/	‘nine’
CVC	/la/	‘red’
CVCC	/pətr/	‘letter’
CCVCC	/svərg/	‘heaven’

2.6.2 Disyllabic Pattern

A word that consists of two syllables is called a Disyllable and is said to be disyllabic. For example:

Pattern	Example	Gloss
V-CV	/eɾi/	‘heel’
CV-CV	/pila/	‘yellow’
VC-CV	/and ^h a/	‘blind’
V-CVC	/adət/	‘habit’
CV-CVC	/kɪtab/	‘book’
CVC-CVC	/səmtəl/	‘flat’
CVC-CV	/k ^h ətra/	‘danger’
VC-CVC	/anpəɾ/	‘illiterate’

2.6.3 Tri-syllabic Pattern

A word that consists of three syllables is called a Tri-syllable and is said to be Tri-syllabic. For example:

Pattern	Example	Gloss
V-CV-CV	/akela	‘alone’
CV-CV-CV	/aŋgɔt ^h a	‘thumb’
CV-CV-CVC	/jəmanət/	‘bail’
V-CVC-CVC	/asɪrvad/	‘blessing’
CV-CVC-CV	/mɔkədma/	‘case’
CVC-CV-CV	/kəlhaɾi/	‘axe’
CV-CV-CVC	/həvalat/	‘lock-up’

CVC-CVC-CV	/mombætti/	‘wax candle’
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2.6.4 Polysyllabic Pattern

A word that consists of more than three syllables is called a Polysyllable and is said to be Polysyllabic. For example:

Pattern	Example	Gloss
V-CV-CV-CV	/ab ^h ineta/	‘actor’
VC-CV-CV-CVC	/ɛlmɔniyɔm/	‘aluminium’
CV-CV-CV-CV	/mɔleriya/	‘malaria’

2.7 Consonantal Clusters

A consonant cluster is a group of consonants which have no intervening vowel. The consonant clusters can be a combination of two identical as well as two non-identical consonants that generally occurs in the medial position of a word. The former is called homogenous clusters and the latter is called heterogeneous consonant clusters. Homogenous clusters are also known as Consonants Gemination (identical consonants cluster). The occurrence of the consonant clusters is most frequently in the initial and medial position.

2.7.1 Word Initial Consonantal Clusters are as follows:

CC	Example	Gloss
pr-	/prem/	‘affection’
br-	/bramda/	‘verendah’
py-	/pya/	‘onion’
gy-	/gyani/	‘wise’
sy-	/syāhi/	‘ink’
sv-	/svərg/	‘heaven’
dy-	/dya/	‘mercy’

2.7.2 Word Final Consonantal Clusters are as follows:

CC	Example	Gloss
-mp	/b ^h ɔkəmp/	‘earthquake’
-nd	/gend/	‘ball’
-nd ^h	/sɔgənd ^h /	‘scent’
-ŋd	/j ^h ɔŋd/	‘herd’
-nk ^h	/pənk ^h /	‘feather’
-nj	/sətrənj/	‘chess’

-tr	/pətr/	‘letter’
-rg	/sʊərg/	‘heaven’
-st̪	/d̪ost̪/	‘naughty’
-st	/dost/	‘friend’
-lk ^h	/s̪ɔlk ^h /	‘tax’

2.7.3 Homogenous Consonantal Clusters (Consonants Gemination)

CC	Example	Gloss
/-pp-/	/t ^h əppər mārna/	‘to slap’
/-tt-/	/ɔttər dena/	‘to answer’
/-dd-/	/kəddu/	‘gourd’
/-t̪t̪-/	/k ^h ət̪t̪a/	‘sour’
/-d̪d̪-/	/kəvəd̪d̪i/	‘kabaddi’
/-kk-/	/pəkka/	‘ripe’
/-cc-/	/bəcca/	‘baby’
/-jj-/	/ləjja/	‘shame’
/-ss-/	/gəssa/	‘anger’
/-nn-/	/pənnə/	‘emerald’
/-mm-/	cəmməc/	‘spoon’
/-ll-/	/bəlla/	‘bat’
/-rr-/	/vərriyə/	‘wasp’

2.7.4 Heterogeneous Consonant Clusters

CC	Example	Gloss
/-b̪t̪-/	/jab̪t̪a/	‘jaw’
/-kr-/	/tokri/	‘basket’
/-ns-/	/ɔnsat ^h /	‘fifty-nine’
/-rb-/	/tirb ^h ɔj/	‘triangle’
/-dr-/	/adr̪ək/	‘ginger’

3. MORPHOLOGY

Morphology deals with words and their declensional patterns as well as verbs and their conjugational patterns. Morphology of Malyani is discussed under Noun, Verb, Adjectives and Adverbs etc.

3.1 Word Formation Process

Malyani is an inflectional language. Words are formed using affixes.

3.1.1 Affixation

A large number of words in Malyani are being derived from other existing words by using prefixes and suffixes. Through affixation one can derive nouns from nouns, adjectives from nouns and nouns from verbs and so on. The following word will exemplify affixation as a word formation process in Malyani.

Through Suffixation

/dʌk/	‘post’	+	[-iya]	=	/dʌkiya/	‘postman’
/gyan/	‘wisdom’	+	[-i]	=	/gyani/	‘wise’

Through Prefixation

[nɪr-]	+	/dʌʃ/	‘fault’	=	/nɪrədʌʃ/	‘innocent’
[an-]	+	/pɹɐʰ/	‘read’	=	/anəpɹɐʰ/	‘illiterate’

3.1.2 Reduplication

Reduplication is a morphological process in which a root or stem or part of it is repeated to create a new lexical item. It may be partial reduplication or full reduplication. The following word will exemplify reduplication as a word formation process in Malyani. Examples from Malyani are given below:

/kəbʰi/	+	/kəbʰi/	=	kəbʰi ~ kəbʰi	‘sometimes’
/bɹɐ/	+	/bɹɐ/	=	bɹɐ ~ bɹɐ	‘very big’

3.1.3 Compounding

Compounding is a process of word formation in which person attaches two or more words together to make them one word. The following word will exemplify compounding as a word formation process in Malyani.

Noun + Noun = Derived Noun

/rel/ 'train' + /gaɽi/ 'vehicle' => /rel gaɽi/ 'train'

/mom/ 'wax' + /bətti/ 'candle' => /mombətti/ 'wax candle'

/gilli/ 'gilly' + /d̪ənd̪a/ 'stick' => /gilli d̪ənd̪a/ 'gilli danda'

3.2 Word Class:

Words are grouped into classes on the basis of their form and function, i.e., on the basis of their phonological, morphological and syntactic properties. The word class set up with nouns, verbs, adverbs, adjectives, post-positions, particles and function words. While the nouns and verb formed with morphological rules, the rest of the word classes formed on syntactic reason. The pronouns also form a sub-class of nouns as they too are declined for case. Affixation (Prefixation & Suffixation), Reduplication and the compounding are prominent morphological processes for the formation of the words as presented above.

3.2.1 Noun

A part of speech, inflected for case, denoting a tangible or intangible entity, referring to objects in the non-linguistic world or to concepts which are considered as forming entities parallel to real-world entities.

Examples are as follows:

/rak ^h /	'ash'
/bəcca/	'baby'
/cɪɽya/	'bird'
/bək ^h ar/	'fever'
/ram/	'Ram'

3.2.2 Pronoun

A grammatical component referring to a noun formerly mentioned and thus serving a deictic or anaphoric function.

Examples are given below:

/təm/	'you'
/mera/	'my'
/təmhara/	'your'

3.2.3 Adjective

A grammatical constituent, the main syntactic role of which is to qualify a noun or noun phrase, providing additional information concerning the subject or object signified.

Examples are:

/bəɾa/	‘big’
/kʰali/	‘empty’
/bɔ̃ra/	‘bad’
/bʰari/	‘heavy’

3.2.4 Verb

A part of speech without case inflection, but inflected for tense, person and number, signifying an activity or process, whether ongoing, completed or undergone. The main action of the verb is expressed in the first part.

Examples are:

/torəna/	‘to break’
/morəna/	‘to bend’
/kaɾəna/	‘to bite’
/bāḍʰəna/	‘to bind’

3.2.5 Adverb

A part of speech with or without inflection that is a modifier of a verb.

Examples:

/dʰire se/	‘slowly’
/roj/	‘daily’
/baḍ me/	‘afterwards’
/ʃam/	‘evening’

3.2.6 Postposition

Postposition is the part of speech that shows the relation of the noun or pronoun to some other word in a sentence.

Examples are:

/pəɾ/	‘on’
/picʰe/	‘behind’
/me/	‘in’
/pas/	‘near’

3.3 Noun Morphology

Noun morphology deals with the forms and classification of nouns, pronouns and their declensional/ inflectional pattern in association with person, number, gender, and adjective etc. The nouns in the language are generally marked by two numbers (singular and plural) and two genders (i.e. masculine, feminine); and mostly seven case forms (nominative, accusative, dative, ablative, genitive, locative and instrumental).

3.3.1 Nouns

The Noun is a word class which takes number, gender and case markers. The nouns functions as a subject or an object in a construction and it denotes person, place, thing etc.

3.3.1.1 Proper Noun

Example:

/sukrə gərəh/	venus
/surjə /	sun
/cəndərma/	moon

3.3.1.2 Common Noun

Example:

/nədi/	river
/gərəh/	planet
/balək/	child

3.3.1.3 Mass Noun

Example:

/kojla/	coal
/cini/	sugar
/nəmək/	salt

3.3.1.4 Count Noun

Example:

/t ^h ali/	plate
/kursi/	chair
/caku/	knife

3.3.1.5 Collective Noun

Example:

/sərkə/	government
/pulis/	police
/apis/	office

3.3.1.6 Concrete Noun

Example:

/t ^h ali/	plate
/loṭha/	pestle
/caku/	knife

3.3.1.7 Abstract Noun

Example:

/duk ^h /	grief
/ʃələn/	jealous
/prem/	affection

3.3.2 Person

Person is categorised into three i.e. first, second, and third person. They have different morphological realization and they are realized differently in terms of syntactic agreement markings on the verb. Such markings are overt in agreement as in the following examples:

/aŋgur ɔgte hɛ/
grapes-3PL grow be.PRS
'Grapes grow.'

/kɔtta b^hɔkta hɛ/
dog.3SG bark be.PRS
'The dog barks.'

In the examples above, the features of third person subject agree with the verb.

3.3.3 Number

Number which refers to a grammatical category marked morphologically at the noun or noun phrases. Number can be either singular or plural. From the provided data it can be seen that there are two numbers in Malaham/Malyani language: singular and plural. The singular number is unmarked.

Singular		Plural	
/ləɾka/	'boy'	/ləɾko/	'boys'
/bəcca/	'child'	/bəcce/	'children'
/g ^h oɾa/	'horse'	/g ^h oɾe/	'horses'
/ʈokəɾi/	'basket'	/ʈokəɾiyã/	'baskets'
/kəhani/	'story'	/kəhaniyã/	'stories'
/ləɾki/	'girl'	/ləɾkiyã/	'girls'
/kɪtab/	'book'	/kɪtabẽ/	'books'

3.3.4 Gender

Gender which refers to a grammatical category is a language specific characteristic. Gender which is either masculine or feminine is not always morphologically marked in Malyani. In most of the cases gender is marked lexically. However, it is also derived by suffixation, suppletion or phonological change in Malyani. In Malyani, gender marking is realized as follows:

The gender features are marked on an individual lexical item as follows:

Masculine		Feminine	
/pɪtɑ/	‘father’	/mã/	‘mother’
/pɔːrɔʃ/	‘male’	/ɪstri/	‘female’
/bɛl/	‘bull’	/gæ/	‘cow’
/pəɡɪ/	‘turban’	/kɪtɑb/	‘book’

The gender features are marked through suffixation as follows:

Masculine		Feminine	
/pəti/	‘husband’	/pətni/	‘wife’
/ʃeːtʰ/	‘husband’s brother’	/ʃeːtʰani/	‘husband’s brother’s wife’
/səmdʰi/	‘son-in-law’s father’	/səmdʰən/	‘son-in-law’s mother’

Gender marking may be done through vowel modification as follow:

Masculine		Feminine	
/sala/	‘wife’s brother’	/sali/	‘wife’s sister’
/mosa/	‘mother’s sister’s husband’	/mosi/	‘mother’s sister husband’
/ləɾka/	‘boy’	/ləɾki/	‘girl’
/gʰoɾɑ/	‘horse’	/gʰoɾi/	‘mare’

3.3.4 Case

Case or case marker is a grammatical category which establishes a kind of relationship between the noun phrase(s) in the sentence with the help of the semantic value of the verb. In Malyani, case may or may not be marked morphologically. The case marker present are as follows:

- Nominative Case
- Accusative Case
- Dative Case
- Instrumental Case
- Ablative Case
- Genitive Case
- Locative Case

3.3.4.1 Nominative Case

The nominative case generally marks the subject of a verb or the predicate noun or predicate adjective which is either a noun or a pronoun. In Malyani, the marker for nominative is null (Ø) as follows:

/vəh- Ø bəʃar jati hɛ/
3SG-NOM market go be.PRS
'She goes to the market.'

/vəh ʊdʰər kʰərɪ hɛ/
3SG-NOM there stand be.PRS
'She stands there.'

/sərkar-Ø ɡərɪbo-ko pɛsa deti hɛ/
Government-NOM poor-DAT money give be
'The Government gives money to poor.'

3.3.4.2 Accusative Case

Accusative case is the case in nominative-accusative languages that marks certain syntactic functions, usually direct objects. In Malyani, the marker for Accusative is null (/Ø/) and /-ko/ as follows:

/mɛ rɔʃi-Ø kʰata hũ/
1SG bread-ACC eat be
'I eat bread.'

/həm ɡæ-ko marte hɛ/
1PL cow-ACC beat be
'We beat the cows.'

/vəh bəʃar mɛ cor ko pəkɾa tʰa/
3SG market LOC thief ACC catch be
'He caught the thief in market.'

3.3.4.3 Dative Case

The dative case designates the indirect object of a transitive verb. Nouns having the role of recipient (as of things given), beneficiary of an action, or possessor of an item are datives. The context plays a crucial factor in differentiating between dative and accusative. In Malyani, the dative marker is /-ko/ as in the following:

/sərkar-Ø ɡərɪbo ko pɛsa deti hɛ/
Government-NOM poor DAT money give be
'The Government gives money to poor.'

/ram-ne syam-ko kɪtab dɪya/
 ram-ERG shyam-DAT book give
 ‘Ram gave the book to Shyam.’

3.3.4.4 Instrumental Case

This case is used to denote instrument with which the action is performed. In Malyani, the Instrumental case marker is realized as /-se/ as follows:

/meri kələm-se lɪkʰo/
 1SG.GEN pen-INS write.
 ‘Write with my pen’

/kẽci-se bəl-ko kaʈa/
 scissors-INS hair-ACC cut.PFV
 ‘The hair is cut with scissors.’

/ram-ne mere kələm-se cɪʈʰi lɪkʰi/
 ram-ERG 1SG.GEN pen-INS letter write
 ‘Ram wrote the letter with my pen.’

3.3.4.5 Ablative Case

Ablative case is a case that expresses movement of the subject or the object from one place to another either at the spatial plane or at the temporal plane is expressed by the ablative case. In this language ablative case marker is /-se/ as follows:

/bəcə-ne peʈ-se pʰəl toɾa/
 Child.3SG-ERG tree-ABL fruit pluck
 ‘The child plucked the fruit from the tree.’

/peʈ-se pətt-e ɡɪrte hẽ/
 Tree-ABL leaf-PL fall be
 ‘The leaves fall from the tree.’

3.3.4.6 Genitive Case or Possessive Case

Genitive case is a case in which the referent of the marked noun is the possessor of the referent of another noun. In Malyani, the Genitive case markers are realized lexically that is by taking genitive form of a pronoun as follows:

/ve ʊska caku hẽ/
 that 3SG.GEN knife be
 ‘That is his knife.’

/ve səb meri kɪtabẽ hẽ/
 that all 1SG.GEN book.PL be
 ‘Those are my books.’

3.3.4.7 Locative Case

Locative case is a case that expresses location at the referent of the noun it marks. The location of the subject or object is expressed by the locative case marker. In Malyani, the locative case marker is realized as follows:

/mere bəcə ɪskul-me hẽ/
 1SG.Gen child-PL school-LOC be.PRS
 ‘My children are in the school.’

/tota pɛr pər hẽ/
 parrot tree LOC be-PRS
 ‘The parrot is on the tree.’

3.3.4.7 Ergative Case

Ergativity is defined as ‘.... grammatical pattern in which the subject of an intransitive clause is treated in the same way as the object of a transitive clause, and differently from transitive subject’ (Dixon 1994:1).

/ram-ne mere kələm-se cɪʈʈʰi lɪkkʰi/
 ram-ERG 1SG.GEN pen-INS letter write
 ‘Ram wrote the letter with my pen.’

/ram-ne sjam-ko kɪtab dɪja/
 ram-ERG shyam-DAT book give
 ‘Ram gave the book to Shyam.’

3.3.5 Numerals

Numerals refer to the symbol that represents the number. Malyani has cardinal, ordinal and fractional number systems.

3.3.5.1 Cardinal Number

Cardinal Number is those numerals which used for counting. The commonly used form of cardinal number found in Malyani in following ways:

Cardinal Number	Gloss
/ek/	one
/do/	two
/tin/	three
/car/	four
/pāc/	five
/c ^h ε/	six
/sat/	seven
/at ^h /	eight
/no/	nine
/dəs/	ten
/gyarəh/	eleven
/barəh/	twelve
/terəh/	thirteen
/caudəh/	fourteen
/pəndrəh/	fifteen
/soləh/	sixteen
/sətrəh/	seventeen
/ət ^h arəh/	eighteen
/ɔnnɪs/	nineteen
/bis/	twenty
/so/	hundred
/tin so/	three hundred
/pāc so/	five hundred
/həjar/	thousand

3.3.5.2 Ordinal Number

Ordinal Number is those numerals which used for denoting position or order in a series. The ordinal number found in Malyani as follows:

Ordinal Number	Gloss
/pəhela/	first
/dusra/	second

/tisra/	third
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3.3.5.3 Fractional Number

Fractional are also found as follows:

Fractional Number	Gloss
/pura/	full
/pao/	quarter
/ad ^h a/	half
/d ^h ai/	two and a half

3.4 Verb Morphology

Verb is a word class that marks Tense-Aspect- Modal- Personal markers distinguished by number and gender. In inflectional languages, verbs may be inflected for Tense- Aspect-Mood along with other constituents in terms of Person, Number and Gender. Accordingly, Verb Morphology deals with the forms and classification of verbs, and their pattern in association etc.

Verb stem is the base of a verb denoting action. The classification of verbs and the types of verbs are presented below.

3.4.1 Classification of Verbs

Verb stems may be classified as simple or complex. A simple stem consists of only one root. A complex stem has a root followed by one or more derivational or formative elements.

3.4.1.1 Simple Verb

A simple verb is composed of monomorphemic single root. For example:

/k ^h ilana/	‘to feed’
/ubalna/	‘to boil

3.4.1.2 Compound Verb

A Compound verb consists of more than one root and may include one or more suffixes. For example:

/c ^h apa marna/	‘to raid
/ʃ ^h əgəɾa kərna/	‘to quarrel’

3.4.2 Transitivity

The number of arguments that a verb takes is called its transitivity. Based on transitivity the verb stems of Malyani can be further divided into three sub-classes as follows.

3.4.2.1 Intransitive Verb

Those verbs which take only one argument is referred to as intransitive verb. The occurrence of intransitive verb (/jana/ ‘to go’) can be observed as follows:

/mẽ	g ^h ər	jata	hũ/
1SG	house	go-IPFV	be.PRS
‘I go to the house.’			

3.4.2.2 Transitive Verb

Those verbs which take two arguments are referred to as transitive verb in Malyani. The occurrence of transitive verb (/k^hana/ ‘to eat’) can be observed as follows:

/mẽ	roʈi	k ^h ata	hũ/
1SG	bread	eat	be.PRS
‘I eat bread.’			

3.4.2.3 Ditransitive Verb

Those verbs which take three arguments are referred to as ditransitive verb. The occurrence of ditransitive verb (/dena/ ‘to give’) can be observed as follows:

/ram-ne	sjam-ko	kitab	dja/
ram-ERG	shyam-DAT	book	give.PFV
‘Ram gave the book to Shyam.’			

3.4.3 Finiteness

A finite verb is a verb form which occurs in an independent clause and is fully inflected according to the inflectional categories marked on verbs in the language. Having the verb stem as the base both Finite and Non-finite verbal formations are presented as realised from Malyani collected data.

The components of finite verb are; 1. Tense, 2. Aspect, and 3. Mood. In Malyani, finite verbs are formed by adding different suffixes to the verb stem and different forms are available for different person and tense. Thus, the finite verbal formation is $\sqrt{\text{V}} + \text{tense marker or } \pm \text{ aspect marker} + \text{PNG marker (person + number } \pm \text{ gender)}$.

3.4.3.1 Tense

Tense is to locate or identify an action in the time scale as Hockett defines the tense as “a grammatical category showing different locations of an event in time” (Hockett, 1970, pp-167). Verbs in Malyani have three ways composition in tense (Present, Past, and Future) and it gets morphologically marked as is shown below.

3.4.3.1.1 Present Tense

It indicates the action that takes place when the utterance is uttered. Accordingly, the present tense person wise is formed in the following way.

/mẽ cɪɾɪya dek^hta hũ/
1SG bird see.IPFV be.PRS
'I see the bird.'

/həm cɪɾɪya dek^hte hẽ/
1PL bird see.PFV be.PRS
'We see the bird.'

/ap log cɪɾɪya dek^hte hẽ/
2.PL bird see.IPFV be.PRS
'You (pl) see the bird.'

/vəh cɪɾɪya dek^hta hɛ/
3SG bird see.IPFV be.PRS
'He sees the bird.'

/vəh cɪɾɪya dek^hti hɛ/
3SG bird see.IPFV be.PRS
'She sees the bird.'

3.4.3.1.2 Past Tense

Past tense refers to an event which happened before the time of utterance. Accordingly, the past tense in Malyani is formed person wise in following ways.

/mẽ-ne cɪɾɪya dek^ha t^ha/
1SG-ERG bird see.PFV be.PST
'I saw the bird.'

/həm-ne cɪɾɪya dek^ha t^ha/
1PL-ERG bird see.PFV be.PST
'We saw the bird.'

/təm-ne cɪɾɪya dek^ha t^ha/
2SG-ERG bird see.PFV be.PST
'You (sg) saw the bird.'

/ap logo-ne cɪɾɪya dek^ha t^ha/
 2PL ERG bird see.PFV be.PST
 ‘You (pl) saw the bird.’

/ʊsne cɪɾɪya dek^ha t^ha/
 3SG bird see.PFV be.PST
 ‘He saw the bird.’

/ʊθh cɪɾɪya dek^hi t^hi/
 3SG bird see.PFV be.PST
 ‘She saw the bird.’

/ʊnho-ne cɪɾɪya dek^ha t^ha/
 3PL-ERG bird see.PFV be.PST
 ‘They saw the bird.’

3.4.3.1.3 Future Tense

Future tense refers to an event which will take place after the time of utterance. Accordingly, the person wise future tense is formed in the following ways:

/mẽ cɪɾɪya dek^hũga/
 1SG bird see-FUT
 ‘I will see the bird.’

/həm cɪɾɪya dek^hẽge/
 1PL bird see-FUT
 ‘We will see the bird.’

/təm cɪɾɪya dek^hoge/
 2SG bird see-FUT
 ‘You will see the bird.’

/aplog cɪɾɪya dek^hẽge/
 2PL bird see-FUT
 ‘You (pl.) will see the bird.’

/ʊəh cɪɾɪya dek^heqɑ/
 3SG bird see-FUT
 ‘He will see the bird.’

/ʊəh cɪɾɪya dek^hegi/
 3SG bird see-FUT
 ‘She will see the bird.’

/je log cɪɾɪya dek^hẽge/
 3PL bird see-FUT
 ‘They will see the bird.’

3.4.3.2 Aspect

Aspect is a grammatical category associated with verbs that expresses a temporal view of the event or state expressed by the verb. Aspectual information implies is related with duration, perfection, habituality etc. Malyani has three aspects interpreted in different tenses as the following:

- Habitual Aspect
- Progressive Aspect
- Perfective Aspect

3.4.3.2.1 Habitual Aspect

The Habitual Aspect denotes the action of the verb takes place from time to time. Marking for habitual aspect of two tenses are as follows:

/surəj purəb dɪsɑ me ʊgəta hɛ/
 sun east direction LOC rise-HAB be.PRS
 ‘The sun rises in the east.’

/həm roj gæ duhəte hẽ/
 1PL everyday cow milk-HAB be.PRS
 ‘We milk the cow’s every day.’

/mẽ no bəje ap^hɪs jaya kərəta t^hɑ/
 1SG nine o’clock office go do-HAB be.PST
 ‘I used to go to office at 9 o’clock.’

/təm no bəje ap^his jaya kərƏte t^he/
 2SG nine o'clock office go do-HAB be.PST
 'You (sg) used to go to office at 9 o'clock.'

3.4.3.2.2 Progressive Aspect

In progressive aspect the action of the verb continues. Progressive aspect in all the three tenses is marked as follows:

/mẽ cɪɽɪya dek^h rəha hũ/
 1SG bird see PROG be.PRS
 'I am seeing the bird.'

/həm cɪɽɪya dek^h rəhe hẽ/
 1PL bird see PROG be.PRS
 'We are seeing the bird.'

/mẽ cɪɽɪya dek^h rəha t^he/
 1SG bird see PROG be.PST
 'I was seeing the bird.'

/həm cɪɽɪya dek^h rəhe t^he/
 1PL bird see PROG be.PST
 'We were seeing the bird.'

/həm cənd dek^h rəhe hõge/
 1SG moon see PROG be.FUT
 'I will be seeing the moon.'

/həm cɪɽɪya dek^h rəhe hõge/
 2PL bird see PROG be.FUT
 'We will be seeing the bird.'

3.4.3.2.3 Perfective Aspect

Perfective aspect is an aspect that expresses a temporal view of an event or state as a simple whole, apart from the consideration of the internal structure of the time in which it occurs. Perfective aspect in all the three tenses is marked as follows.

/mẽ cɪɾɪya ko dek^h cɔka hũ/
 1SG bird ACC see PFV be.PRS
 ‘I have seen the bird.’

/tɔm cɪɾɪya dek^h cɔke ho/
 2SG bird see PFV be.PRS
 ‘You (sg) have seen the bird.’

/mẽ cɪɾɪya dek^h cɔka t^ha/
 1SG bird see PFV be.PST
 ‘I had seen the bird.’

/tɔm cɪɾɪya dek^h cɔke t^he/
 2SG bird see PFV be.PST
 ‘You (sg) had seen the bird.’

/vəh cɪɾɪya dek^ha hɔwa hoga/
 3SG bird see PFV be.FUT
 ‘He will have seen the bird.’

/vəh cɪɾɪya dek^hi hɔwi hogi/
 3SG bird see PFV be.FUT
 ‘She will have seen the bird.’

3.4.3.3 Mood

Mood is one of a set of distinctive forms that are used to signal modality. The mode or manner of a speaker is expressed by mood. It incorporates a statement, a command, a question, a doubt etc. Mood in Malyani, observed from the data may be categorized as follows:

Indicative Mood

/bæcce mɔj^he dek^hte hẽ/
 child 1SG-ACC see.IPFV be.PRS
 ‘The children see me.’

Imperative Mood

/jəh kɪtab pəɾ^ho/
 PROX.SG book read
 ‘Read this book.’

Subjunctive Mood

/təm k^het pər jaɔ ya mɛ̃ ja ta hũ/
 2SG field LOC go or 1SG go.IPFV be.PRS
 ‘Either you go or I shall to the field.’

Optative Mood

/tən səb^hi ko ɔne do/
 3PL All ACC come.INF give
 ‘Let them all come.’

Conditional Mood

/aɣər mɛ̃ t^hik rəhũ kəl ɑũɣa/
 if 1SG well remain tomorrow come-FUT
 ‘If I am well I will come tomorrow.’

3.4.4 Non-finite Verb

In Malyani, a non-finite verb is any of several verb forms which cannot serve as the root of an independent clause. In other words, a non-finite may be described as ‘a verb derived words’ which has ability to serve as a noun or adjective. It may further be categorized into Infinitives, Gerund and Participles as follows:

3.4.4.1 Infinitive

/mɛ̃-ne təm-ko ɔne ke liye kəha t^ha/
 1SG-ERG 2SG-ACC come.INF for say be.PST
 ‘I told you to come.’

3.4.4.2 Gerund

/tərɔ seht ke liye acca hɛ/
 Swimming.GER health for good be.PRS
 ‘Swimming is good for health.’

3.4.4.3 Participle

/vəh ɣire həwe p^həlo ko ikətt^ha ki t^hi/
 3SG.F fallen become fruit ACC collect do.PFV be.PST
 ‘She collected the fallen fruits.’

3.5 Negation

Negation in Malyani is a morphosyntactic operation by which a lexical item denies or inverts the meaning of another lexical item or construction. This may be done by introducing a negative (a lexical item which expresses negation) or by the process of inverting the meaning of pre-existing lexical item as in follows:

/jəh kʰane layek nəhi hɛ/
 PROX.SG eat fit NEG be.PRS
 ‘This is not edible.’

/mere pas kucʰ nəhi hɛ/
 1SG near anything NEG be.PRS
 ‘I have nothing with me.’

3.6 Causativization

Causative is basically a form where the subject causes something or someone to do or be something and the process is known as causation or Causativization. Causativization is done as follows:

/mẽ pani ubalʔta hũ/
 1SG water boil.CAUS be.PRS
 ‘I boil water.’

/mẽ bæcce-ko kʰilata hũ/
 1SG child-DAT eat.CAUS be.PRS
 ‘I feed the baby.’

3.7 Passivization

Passivization is basically the transformation of a sentence from an active form to a passive form. The realization of passive sentences may be observed as follows:

/roʈi mere doara kʰaya ja rəha hɛ/
 bread-ACC 1SG.DAT by eat.PFV go PROG be.PRS
 ‘Bread is being eaten by me.’

/təmhara koʈ silvaya ja rəha hɛ/
 2SG.GEN coat stitch.PFV go PROG be.PRS
 ‘Your coat is being stitched.’

3.8 Adverb

An adverb is a category that qualifies the meaning of a verb, adjective, other adverb, clause, and sentence or any other word or phrase, except that it does not include the adjectives and determiners that directly modify nouns. The types of adverbs observed from the present language variable are as follows:

3.8.1 Adverb of Manner

/dʰire se bat kəro/
slowly with talk do
‘Speak slowly.’

3.8.2 Adverb of Time

/car bəje ke bad ao/
Four o’clock GEN after come
‘Come after 4 O’clock.’

3.8.3 Adverb of Place

/mẽ yəhã ata hũ/
1SG here come be.PRS
‘I come here.’

3.8.4 Adverb of Direction

/surəj purəb dɪsa mẽ ʊgəta hɛ/
Sun east direction LOC rise.IPFV be
‘The sun rises in the east.’

4. SYNTAX

Syntax is the level of linguistics which deals with how words are joined together to form grammatical sentences.

4.1 Word order

The term word order refers to the order of sentential elements. The most basic word order in Malyani is SOV.

Order of Subject Object and Verb = **SOV**

/mẽ cɪɾɪya dekʰta hũ/
1SG bird see.IPFV be.PRS
'I see the bird.'

Order of Subject and Verb = **SV**

/kɔtta bʰɔkta hɛ/
dog bark be.PRS
'The dog barks.'

Order of Object and Verb = **OV**

/gʰas hətʰao/
grass remove.2
'Remove the grass.'

Order of Noun and Postposition: (**Noun + Postposition**)

/tɛbəl pər kʰəɾɛ ho ʃao/
table LOC stand become go
'Stand on the table.'

Order of Genitive and Noun: (**Genitive + Noun**)

/mere ha:t/
1SG.GEN hands
'My hands'

Order of Adjective and Noun: (**Adjectiv + Noun**)

/accʰa lətʰka/
good boy
'The good boy'

Order of Adverb and Verb: (**Adverb + Verb**)

/dʰire se bat kəro/
Slowly talk do
'Speak slowly.'

Order of Auxiliaries and Main Verb: (**Auxiliaries follows Main Verb**)

/mẽ cɪɽya dekʰta hũ/
1SG bird see (M.V) AUX (be.PRS)
'I see the bird.'

Order of Negation and Verb: (**Verb follows Negation**)

/ʊəh kam nəhi ki hɛ/
3SG.F work NEG do.PFV be.PRS
'She has not done the work.'

4.2 Types of Sentences

The sentences observed from the present language variable can be categorized on the basis of formation (Simple, Complex and Compound) and on the basis of function (Declarative, Interrogative, Imperative and Exclamatory) as follows:

4.2.1 On the Basis of Formation

4.2.1.1 Simple Sentence

A sentence made up of only one clause. For example:

/mẽ cɪɽya dekʰta hũ/
1SG bird see.IPFV be.PRS
'I see the bird.'

4.2.1.2 Complex Sentence

A sentence which has two or more clause of unequal rank. For example:

/ʃo admi kəl mər gəya ʊo ek gayək tʰa/
REL man yesterday die go.PFV DEM one singer be.PST
'The man who died yesterday was a singer.'

4.2.1.3 Compound Sentence

A sentence which has two or more clause of equal rank. For example:

/din me kam kəre or rat ko soje/
Day LOC work do.IMP and night LOC sleep
'Work in the day and sleep at night.'

4.2.2 On the Basis of Function

4.2.2.1 Declarative Sentence

A sentence which expresses something in the form of answer or statement.

/vəh k^het pər ʃajega/
3SG field LOC go.FUT
'He will go to the field.'

4.2.2.2 Interrogative Sentence

A sentence which helps to ask or enquire something.

/ap kya k^hate hẽ /
2SG what eat-IPFV be.PRS
'What do you eat?'

4.2.2.3 Imperative Sentence

A sentence which is used for advising, ordering, commanding, requesting etc.

/təmhəri beʃi-ko bəlaə/
2SG.GEN daughter-DAT call
'Call your daughter.'

4.2.2.4 Exclamatory Sentence

A sentence which exclaims sudden feeling of surprise, liking, disliking etc.

/təm kɪtnə ləmbe ho gəye ho/
2SG how tall be go.PST be
'How tall you have grown!'

4.3 Phrases

A phrase is a syntactic structure which acts like a constituent of a sentence. It may be realised as Noun Phrase (NP), Verb Phrase (VP), Adjectival Phrase (AP), Postpositional Phrase (PP) and Adverbial Phrase (AP) as follows;

4.3.1 Noun Phrase

A phrase which has a nominal head. For example:

/cətər ləʃka/
clever boy
'The clever boy'

4.3.2 Verb Phrase

A phrase which has a verbal head. For example:

/mẽ cɪɾɪʔa dekʰta hũ/
1.SG bird see Aux
'I see the bird.'

4.3.3 Adjectival Phrase

A phrase which has an adjectival head. For example:

/cətər ləɾka/
clever boy
'The clever boy.'

4.3.4 Postpositional Phrase

A phrase which has a postpositional head. For example:

/təbəl pər kʰəɾe ho ʃao/
PP stand be go
'Stand on the table.'

4.3.5 Adverbial Phrase

A phrase which has an adverbial head. For example:

/vəh tej daʊɾəta hɛ/
3.SG fast run be.PRS
'He runs fast.'

4.4 Clauses

Clause is defined as a group of words which has a conjugated verb and its subject. The types of clause observed in Malyani are as follows:

4.4.1 Main Clause

A clause which does not depend upon another clause to make a complete sentence.

/jeh vohi admi hɛ ʃisse kəl mẽ mɪla tʰa/
PROX DEM man AUX REL yesterday 1.SG meet be.PST
'This is the man whom I met yesterday.'

4.4.2 Subordinate Clause

A clause which depends upon another clause to make a complete sentence.

For example:

/jeh vohi admī hē jisse kəl mē mīla tʰa/
PROX DEM man AUX REL yesterday 1SG meet be.PST
'This is the man whom I met yesterday.'

4.4.3 Relative Clause

Subordinate clauses which begin with relative pronouns. For example:

/ʃo admī ləməba hē us-se kəl mē mīla tʰa/
REL man tall AUX DEM tomorrow 1SG meet be.PST
'I met the man yesterday who is tall.'

4.4.4 Correlative Clause

A clause with correlative pronoun and a demonstrative. For example:

/ʃo CD sel pəʀ hē Maya us CD ko kʰəridegi/
REL CD sale on be maya Dem CD Dat buy
'The CD which is on sale, Maya will buy that CD.'

4.5 Negation

Negation is a morphosyntactic operation by which a lexical item denies or inverts the meaning of another lexical item or construction. This may be done by introducing a new negator (a lexical item which expresses negation) or by the process of inverting the meaning of pre-existing lexical item as in follows.

/jəh kʰane layek nəhi hē/
PROX.SG eat able NEG be.PRS
'This is not edible.'

/mere pas kucʰ nəhi hē/
1SG near anything NEG be.PRS
'I have nothing with me.'

4.6 Causativization:

Causative is basically a form that a subject cause something or someone to do or be something and the process is known as causation or causativization. The examples are as follows:

/mē pani ubaləta hū/
1SG water boil.CAUS be.PRS
'I boil water.'

/mẽ bəcce-ko kʰilata hũ/
 1SG child-DAT eat.CAUS be.PRS
 ‘I feed the baby.’

4.7 Passivization:

Passivisation is basically the transformation of a sentence from an active form to a passive form. The realization of passive sentences may be observed as follows:

/roʈi mere doara kʰaya ja rəha hɛ/
 bread-ACC 1SG.DAT by eat go PROG be.PRS
 ‘Bread is being eaten by me.’

/təmhara koʈ silvaya ja rəha hɛ/
 2SG.GEN coat stitch go PROG be.PRS
 ‘Your coat is being stitched.’

To conclude, Malyani is an Indo-Aryan language/dialect. The basic word order is SOV. There is no written grammar or literary tradition available for this variety. Malyani in most ways is very similar to Hindi, and thus a dialect of Hindi.

5. TEXT

/do dost or ek b^halu/

‘Two friends and a bear’

/ramu or siyamu do dost t^he/

‘Ramu and Shyam were two friends.’

/ve jəgəɪ mē ja rəhe t^he/

‘They were passing through a forest.’

/ʊnəhone ek dusəre se vada kiya, ki ve kisi b^hi k^hətəre mē sat^h rəhēge/

‘They promised each other that they will remain together in case of any danger.’

/ek din ek jəgəɪ mē ja rəhe t^he/

‘One day, they were passing through a forest.’

/saməne se ek b^halu aya/

‘There came a bear.’

/b^halu ko dek^hkəɾ dono dost bəhut dər gəye/

‘Both friends were afraid seeing the bear.’

/ramu dər ke mare peɾ pər caɾ^h gəya, siyam ko peɾ pər cəɾ^həna nəhi ata t^ha/

‘Being afraid, Ramu climbed a tree, Shyam did not know to climb a tree.’

/vəh apəne mitr ramu ko bola, mətj^he peɾ pər cəɾ^həna nəhi ata/

‘He told his friend Ramu, I do not know to climb a tree.’

/kirpiya meri mədəd kəro/

‘Please help me.’

/par ramu ne koyi javab nahi diya/

‘But Ramu did not respond.’

/dək^hi or mayus hokar siyam jamin pər apni sās rok kar let gəya/

‘In fear and grief, Shyam lay down on the ground breathless.’

/jəld hi vəhā b^halu pəhōca/

‘The bear came there quickly.’

/jəmin pər lete siyam ke pas gəya or ōse sōghəne ləga/

‘Seeing Shyam lying on the ground, the bear came near him and started to smell him.’

/kʰʊcʰ der sʰgʱəne ke bad vʱəh siyam ko vʱəhĩ cʰoɾ kʰər cʰəla gəya/

‘After smelling him for some time, he left Shyam there and went away.’

/pɐɾ par beʰe ramu ko ləga ki bʰalu siyam ko kan mē kʰʊcʰ bol ke gaya hɐ/

‘Sitting on the tree, Ramu felt that the bear has said something in Shyam’s ear.’

/vʱəh jʱəldi se nice aya or siyam se pucʰa, dost mere vʱəh bʰalu tʰmʱəhare kan mē kya bola/

‘He came down quickly and asked Shyam, my friend, what did the bear say in your ears?’

/siyam jʱəmin se ʊtʰa or ramu ko bola/

‘Shyam stood up from the ground and told Ramu.’

/vʱəh bʰalu mʱjʰe bola ki dʰurt or sʱarthi logo pʱər bʰərosa mʱət kʰro/

‘That bear told me not to believe in false friend.’

/jo tʰmko mʱsibʱət mē cʰoɾ ke cʰəla jaye/

‘Who leave you alone in case of any danger.’

/itʱəna kah ke siyam vʱəhā se akela cʰəl diya/

‘Saying this Shyam left from there.’

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1. INTRODUCTION

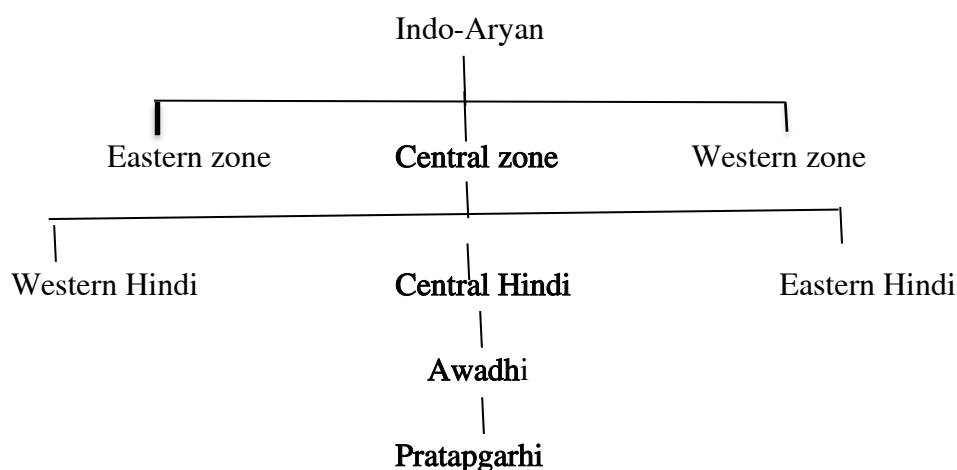
Pratapgarhi is one of the unclassified mother tongues of India returned in Census 2001 and 2011. This language is mainly in the Jaunpur district of the Indian state of U. P. as well as in Rasoolpur, Jaunpur. The Hindi is the closest major language. Their language is also very similar to Hindi language.

The origin of Pratapgarhi mother tongue is traceable to the Indo-Aryan family of languages and is related to and influenced by the neighbouring languages like Eastern Hindi, Awadhi, Bhojpuri etc.

Family affiliation

‘Pratapgarh’ is the name of a district of Uttar Pradesh. A specific community came from that region is known as ‘Pratapgarhi’ community and the language spoken by them is also named as ‘Pratapgarhi’ language. ‘Pratapgarhi’ mother tongue is nothing but a variety of Awadhi language and this Awadhi is traced since 1874 Census.

In Grierson’s Linguistic Survey of India (LSI) (1904) Awadhi was traced. In LSI Grierson classifies ‘Awadhi’ under Eastern Hindi sub group of Indo-aryan family of languages. Linguistic classification of Pratapgarhi according to Grierson is presented below,



Sociolinguistic Information

‘Pratapgarhi’ is nothing but a community name and also the language spoken by them. They are mainly Business people but some of them are also involved in various industries like finance, real estate, entertainment, textiles, timber and grains.

The primary means of communication of this community is Awadhi and Hindi but they can understand Bhojpuri and English also.

These people are mainly followers of Hinduism but Muslim believers are also there.

Pratapgarhi mother tongue has no standard form and they also have no written literature. Elder generations of this community use some oral fables and moral stories for younger generations. They use Awadhi or Hindi language outside of the community in their day to day life. They use Devanagari script for their writing purpose.

Location

The field data for Pratapgarhi for the project of Linguistic Survey of India, Uttar Pradesh was collected from Patti tehsil of Pratapgarh district, of Uttar Pradesh in December, 2021. The data has been collected from a female informant named Mr Vinod Kumar Yadav, age is 36 years, and verified by a male informant, named Mr. Vijay Kumar, age is 40 years. Both are residents of Patti tehsil of Pratapgarh district. Name of interpreter is Mr. Santosh Kumar, age 44, residing at Sadar tehsil of Pratapgarh district.

Bilingualism

Bilingualism (multilingualism) refers to the coexistence of more than one language system within an individual, as contrasted to monolingualism. Bilingualism is a product of extensive language contact. Most of the people in India are bilinguals. Similarly, Pratapgarhi people are also bilingual since very longer period of time. They mainly communicate in Hindi within their group. However, the younger generation also uses English language in their day to day communication with each other. This community also understand and responses in Awadhi language when they deal with business.

Review of earlier literature

Pratapgarhi has no standard form and they also have no written literature. Elder generations of this community use some oral fables and moral stories for younger generations. As per the information from the informants, now a days this community has started publishing one half yearly magazine which presents matrimonial advertisement, small poems and songs regarding marriage ceremony, small story etc. They use Devanagari script for their writing purpose.

1.6. Basis of the present analysis

The present study is an attempt to present the detailed phonological, morphological and syntactic features of Pratapgarhi language based on the field data collected from Pratapgarh district in Uttar Pradesh conducted by our in-house linguists in order to supplement the MTSI

survey results for preparing the Linguistic Survey of India, Uttar Pradesh volume, the informant being Sri Vinod Kumar Shukla (Male -50)

This data was validated with the data collected during Mother Tongue Survey of India (MTSI) project. Four samples which are categorized on the basis of informant's place, gender and age, have been collected in audio-visual mode and are given to different scholars from various universities of India to write an analytical report on each of the particular variable. The informants were, Smt Nirmala Devi, (Female +50), Smt Laxmi Devi (Female -50), Sri Acchelal Yadav (Male +50) and Sri Vivek Yadav (Male -50).

The details of the scholars along with the names of the variables for which they have written the analytical reports are Raghawandra Singh Rajpoot, Basudha Das, Abhishikta Ghosh and Irshad Naikoo

All these four analyses of Pratapgarhi have been consolidated by Prof. M.K. Koul of Central Institute for Indian Languages. The findings of the consolidated report have been incorporated in the report.

2. PHONOLOGY

Phonology is the study of how sounds are organized and used in natural languages. The phonological system of a language includes an inventory of sounds and their features and rules which specify how sounds interact with each other. Phonemic analysis consists in allotting all the indefinite number of sounds occurring in utterances to a definite and limited set of phonemes contrastive in at least some environment.

The phonemic inventory of Pratapgarhi shows the distinctive sound units occurring in Pratapgarhi speech.

The phonological system of Pratapgarhi is presented below based on the data collected from the informant.

Phonemic Inventory (segmental)

Part of the phonological study of a language involves looking at data (phonetic transcriptions of the speech of native speakers) and trying to deduce what the underlying phonemes are and what the sound inventory of the language is. The segmental phonemes of Pratapgarhi comprise of 13 vowels and 32 Consonants. An effort has been made to present them with suitable examples.

Segmental Vowel Phonemes:

The segmental vowels in Pratapgarhi language are presented below

Vowel Chart

	Anterior	Central	Posterior
High	/i/ /i/		/u/ /u/
Mid	/e/ /e/	/ə/	/o/ /o/
Mid-Low	/ɛ/		
Low	...	/a/ /a/	/ɔ/

Distribution of the Vowel phonemes

Vowels	Initial	Gloss	Medial	Gloss	Final	Gloss
/i/	/iʈa/	‘brick’	/dʒəmin/	‘ground’	/rak ^h i/	‘ash’
/e/	/ek/	‘one’	/ãd ^h era/	‘darkness’	/pilie/	‘jaundice’
/ɛ/	-----		/səhɛr/	‘city’	/chɛ/	‘six’
/a/	/aʈ/	‘eight’	/taba/	‘copper’	/sisa/	‘glass’

/ə/	/əorət/	‘wife’	/nəgər/	‘town’	-----	
/ɔ/	-----		/dɔɾ/	‘race’	/sɔ/	‘hundred’
/o/	/oli/	‘marbles’	/gola/	‘circle’	/pao/	‘quarter’
/u/	/upri oɭ ^h /	‘upper lip’	/kusti/	‘wrestling’	/alu/	‘potato’

Thus, the collected database shows that vowels can occur in almost all positions in.

Segmental Consonant Phonemes

The segmental consonants in this language are presented below

Consonant Chart

		Bilabial	Dental	Alveolar	Palatal	Retroflex	Velar
Stops	Vl	/p/ /ph/	/t/ /th/			/ɭ/ /ɭh/	/k/ /kh/
	Vd	/b/ /bh/	/d/ /dh/			/ɖ/ /ɖh/	/g/ /gh/
Affricate	Vl				/c/ /ch/		
	Vd				/ɟ/		
Fricative	Vl			/s/	/ʃ/		
	Vd	/f/					
Nasal		/m/		/n/		/ɳ/	/ŋ/
Liquid					/l/	/ɭ/	
Trill				/r/		/ɻ/	
Semivowel					/v/, /j/		

All the above-mentioned consonants are found in the Pratapgarhi language.

Distribution of the Consonantal Phonemes

Consonants	Initial	Gloss	Medial	Gloss	Final	Gloss
/p/	/pagəl/	‘insanity’	/p ^h epɾa/	‘lung’	/bap/	‘father’
/p ^h /	/p ^h epɾa/	‘lung’	/p ^h up ^h era b ^h ai/	‘father’s sister’s son’	/bərəp ^h /	‘fog’
/b/	/bərəp ^h /	‘fog’	/pərbət/	‘mountain’	/talab/	‘lake’
/b ^h /	/b ^h aɭa/	‘low tide’	/p ^h up ^h era b ^h ai/	‘father’s sister’s son’	/ɖɟib ^h /	‘tongue’
/t/	/təbiyət/	‘health’	/cīuɭi/	‘ant’	/mut/	‘urine’
/t ^h /	/t ^h uk/	‘saliva’	/mat ^h a/	‘head’	/hat ^h /	‘hand’
/d/	/dai/	‘midwife’	/halɖi/	‘halɖi’	/nənəd/	‘sister-in- law’

/d ^h /	/d ^h an/	‘paddy’	/səmd ^h i/	‘son-in-law’s father’	/dud ^h /	‘milk’
/t/	/tibi/	‘tuberculosis’	/ciuṭi/	‘ant’	/aṭ/	‘eight’
/t ^h /	/t ^h əḍ ^h ək/	‘cold’	/muṭt ^h i/	‘fist’	/kaṭ ^h /	‘wood’
/ḍ/	/ḍəkərna/	‘belch’	/bawand̪ar/	‘ice’	/dənd̪/	‘punishment’
/ḍ ^h /	/ḍhai/	‘two and a half’	/t ^h əḍ ^h ək/	‘cold’	-----	
/k/	/kaṭ ^h /	‘wood’	/pəkch ⁱ /	‘bird’	/t ^h əḍ ^h ək/	‘cold’
/k ^h /	/k ^h əṭk ^h əṭwa/	‘bug’	/rak ^h i/	‘ash’	/pəŋk ^h /	‘ankle’
/g/	/gilhari/	‘squirrel’	/pagəl/	‘insanity’	/rog/	‘disease’
/g ^h /	/g ^h aṭi/	‘valley’	/g ^h ōg ^h a/	‘snail’	-----	
/m/	/makra/	‘spider’	/kamd ^h enu/	‘yak’	/sem/	‘beans’
/n/	/nala/	‘brook’	/pani/	‘water’	/ḍ ^h əlan/	‘slope’
/ŋ/	-----		/pəŋk ^h /	‘wing’	/ḍəŋ/	‘thigh’
/ŋ/	-----		-----		/surad̪ ki kiran̪/	‘sunlight’
/r/	/rak ^h i/	‘ash’	/bəd̪rə/	‘thunder’	/səs̪ur/	‘father-in-law’
/ṛ/	-----		/bac ^h ṭa/	‘calf’	/pəhaṛ/	‘hill’
/s/	/siar/	‘insect’	/bistuia/	‘leech’	/b ^h aes/	‘buffalo’
/ʃ/	/ʃək/	‘doubt’	/kəʃt/	‘brief’	/naʃ/	‘destroy’
/h/	/hat ^h i/	‘elephant’	/ləhər/	‘wave’	/grəh/	‘planet’
/c/	/ciuṭi/	‘ant’	/kuckucwa/	‘bull’	/cōc/	‘beak’
/c ^h /	/c ^h aya/	‘shade’	/pəkch ⁱ /	‘bird’	/məgərmach ^h /	‘crocodile’
/ḍ̪/	/ḍ̪əhər/	‘poison’	/b ^h and̪a/	‘sister’s son’	/sərahəḍ̪/	‘wife’s brother’s wife’
/ḍ̪ ^h /	/ḍ̪ ^h iŋgur/	‘cockroach’	/od̪ ^h a/	‘sorcerer’	/ḍ̪ ^h aend̪̪/	‘cymbals’
/l/	/ləhsun/	‘garlic’	/relgaṛi/	‘train’	/bəbul/	‘babool’
/w/	/wasp/	‘steam’	/həwa/	‘air’	-----	
/y/	/yaddast/	‘memory’	/aynək/	‘spectacles’	/pərad̪əy/	‘defeat’

Diphthongs

Diphthongs refer to two adjacent vowel sounds occurring within the same syllable. There are some vowel clusters realized in Pratapgarhi language. Such as

Diphthong	Initial	Medial	Final
/au/	/aur/ ‘and’	/taulab/ ‘to weigh’	/nau/ ‘nine’
/ou/		/mousam/ ‘weather’	
/oa/		/d̪oar/ ‘high tide’	

Consonant Clusters

A consonant cluster is a group of consonants which have no intervening vowel. The consonant clusters can be a combination of two identical as well as two non-identical consonants that generally occurs in the medial position of a word. The former is called homogenous clusters and the latter is called heterogeneous consonant clusters. The occurrence of the consonant clusters is most frequently in the medial position. A few examples of non-identical clusters are as follows

/n+t/	/dant/	‘tooth’
	/mantri:/	‘minister’
/ŋ+g/	/aŋguri:/	‘finger’
	/əŋgna:/	‘courtyard’
/k+r/	/kro:d/	‘anger’
	/no:kra:ni:/	‘midwife’
/h+l/	/məchli:/	‘fish’
	/pehla/	‘first’
/r+g/	/suvarg/	‘heaven’
	/mirgi/	‘epilepsy’
/h+r/	/cehra:/	‘face’
	/mehra:ru:/	‘wife’

/n+d/	/nand/	‘sister in law’
	/gɛnd/	‘ball’
/n+d/	/gamand/	‘pride’
	/su:nd/	‘trunk (of elephant)’
/l+v/	/pilva:/	‘puppy’
	/khilva:ɽi:/	‘sports-man’
/r+s/	/kursi/	‘chair’
	/saŋgars karab/	‘to collide’
/s+t/	/riste:da:r/	‘relatives’
	/dast/	‘diarrhoea’
/r+n/	/marna:/	‘death’
	/dʒarna:/	‘high tide’
/l+s/	/hilsa:/	‘hilsa’
	/tulsi:/	‘tulsi’
/p+r/	/prətiɟja: karab/	‘to pretend’
	/pra:tna: karatəhi:/	‘to pray’
/p+ɽ/	/kapɽa/	‘cloth’
	/phepɽa/	‘lung’
/c + p/	/pacpan/	‘fifty-five’
/r+dʒ/	/terdʒu:/	‘balance / scale’
	/gardʒab/	‘to roar’
/l+l/	/ullu:/	‘owl’
	/kalla:/	‘wrist’
/t+t/	/mumbatti/	‘wax candle’
/t+t/	/mitti:/	‘chalk’
/k+k/	/sakkar/	‘sugar’
	/dʒhukkul/	‘hide and seek’

/d+d/	/gaḍḍa: kho:dab/	‘dig (a hole)’
/t+t/	/həṭṭi/ /guṭṭi:/	‘bone’ ‘doll’
/s+s/	/gussaj a:je:gi:/ /rassi/	‘to get anger’ ‘rope’

Consonant Gemination

The following are the example of some geminated (identical consonant clusters) consonants

/l+l/	/ullu:/ /kalla:/	‘owl’ ‘wrist’
/t+t/	/mumbatti/	‘wax candle’
/t+t/	/mitti:/	‘chalk’
/k+k/	/sakkar/ /ḍhukkul/	‘sugar’ ‘hide and seek’
/d+d/	/gaḍḍa: kho:dab/	‘dig (a hole)’
/t+t/	/həṭṭi/ /guṭṭi:/	‘bone’ ‘doll’
/s+s/	/gussaj a:je:gi:/ /rassi/	‘to get anger’ ‘rope’

Phonemic Contrasts

A phoneme is the smallest contrastive unit in the sound system of a language. A study of minimal pairs in the data exemplifies the phonemic contrast available in the dialect/language. These are used to demonstrate that two phones constitute two separate phonemes in the language. Examples of phonemic contrasts in Pratapgarhi are as follow

Contrasts in Vowels

/a/ ~ /i/	/nana:/	‘mother’s father’	/nani/	‘mother’s mother’
/a/ ~ /e/	/baṛa:/	‘large-sg’	/baṛe:/	‘large-pl’
/a/ ~ /ə/	/baṛa:/	‘large-masc’	/bəṛi:/	‘large-fem’

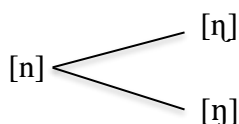
Contrasts in Consonants

/t/ ~ /g/	/ti:t/	‘bitter’	/gi:t/	‘song’
/m/ ~ /t/	/ma:la:/	‘garland’	/ta:la:/	‘lock’
/c/ ~ /b/	/co:lab/	‘to peel’	/bo:lab/	‘to speak’
/h/ ~ /m/	/ha:th/	‘hand’	/ma:th/	‘forehead’
/ɖ/ ~ /g/	/ɖʒoɾ/	‘joint’	/go:ɾ/	‘leg’
/p/ ~ /k/	/pa:n/	‘pan’	/ka:n/	‘ear’
/m/ ~ /s/	/ma:s/	‘flesh’	/sa:s/	‘mother-in-law’
/t/ ~ /b/	/te:l/	‘oil’	/be:l/	‘bel (sripal)’
/h/ ~ /t/	/ha:r/	‘defeat’	/ta:r/	‘wire’
/m/ ~ /c/	/ma:rab/	‘to kill’	/cara:b/	‘to graze (the cattle)’

Allophonic Distribution

An allophone is a phonetic variant of a phoneme in a particular language. Although a phoneme’s allophones are all alternative pronunciations for a phoneme, the specific allophone selected in a given situation is often predictable. The present data shows the following allophonic variation:

Phoneme /n/ has two allophones [ŋ] and [n].



[ŋ] phoneme is reported at medial and final positions of a word e.g.

/ka:ŋi:/	‘mortar’
/giŋa:/	‘hatred’

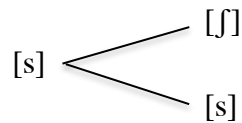
[n] phoneme is followed by /g/ when occurs at medial position of a word e.g.

/ɖʒaŋgal/	‘forest’
/aŋguri:/	‘finger’

It also occurs at final position of a word e.g.

/pataŋ/	‘kite’
/lava:ŋ/	‘clove’

Phoneme [s] has two allophones [ʃ] and [s]



[ʃ] phoneme occurs at initial and medial positions of a word e.g.

/ʃed/	‘tumour’
/rakʃa: karna:/	‘security’
/bəviʃva:ɳi:/	‘prediction’

Co-articulation

In Co articulation a conceptually isolated speech sound is influenced or becomes more like, a preceding or following speech sound. This feature cannot be observed in Pratapgarhi language.

Retroflexion is a sound formation process where the presence of a retroflex sound casts its impact on the following sound. Pratapgarhi too reports retroflexion like other Indian languages e.g.

/ɖʒa:ɽa:/	‘cold’
/paha:ɽ/	‘hill’
/go:ɽi:/	‘marbles’
/ka:ɳi:/	‘mortar’
/giɳa:/	‘hatred’

Syllable Structure

A syllable is a unit of sound composed of a central peak of sonority (usually a vowel), and the consonants that cluster around this central peak. Syllables are often considered the phonological "building blocks" of words. They can influence the rhythm of a language, its prosody, its poetic meter and its stress patterns. Syllabification is the separation of a word into syllables, whether spoken or written. In Pratapgarhi syllabification has been done as

- I. Monosyllabic
- II. Disyllabic
- III. Polysyllabic

Monosyllabic Pattern

VC	/a:g/	‘fire’
CVC	/baɽ/	‘flood’

Disyllabic Pattern

CV-CV	/ɖʒa:ɽa:/	‘cold’
CV-CVC	/paha:ɽ/	‘hill’

Polysyllabic Pattern

VC-CV-CV-CV	/anhi:ja:ra:/	‘darkness’
CVC-CV-CV	candrəmə̃:/	‘moon’
CVC-CV-CV-CV	/bistu:ji:ja:/	‘lizard’
CVC-CVC-CV-CV-CV	/kumhilja:ji:ge:/	‘faint’

Suprasegmental Feature

Apart from segmental phonemes Pratapgari also make suprasegmental distinctions in nasality that has already been discussed.

Nasalisation

Nasalization is a way of pronouncing sounds characterized by resonance produced through the nose in course of which the velum is lowered, so that some air escapes through the nose during the production of the sound by the mouth. In Pratapgari nasalization occurs with or without the influence of nasal vowel.

The nasalized vowels are [õ], [ã], [ẽ], [ĩ], [ɔ̃] and [ũ].

Some of these occurrences of nasalized vowels are shown below

/õ/	/sarsõv/	‘mustard’
/ã/	/kã:kaɽ/	‘pebble’
/ẽ/	/phẽ:kab/	‘to throw’
/ĩ/	/cĩvɽi:/	‘ant’
/ɔ̃/	/põvɖʒab/	‘to swim’
/ũ/	/kũvar/	‘bachelor’

Length

Length in Pratapgari language is not phonemic.

3. MORPHOPHONEMICS

A morphophonemic rule has the form of a phonological rule, but is restricted to a particular morphological environment. The alteration of morphemes when they occur with various kinds of affixes, phonological variations takes place. Morphophonemic deals with such phonological variations.

The Morphophonemic changes in Pratapgarhi are realised in the following ways.

i) Insertion of Phoneme

When an extra phoneme is added in between two consonants to form a word

/gərm/ 'hot' > /gərəm/ 'hot'

/sərd/ 'cold' > /sərɖi/ 'cold'

ii) Deletion

When a phoneme is deleted to form a word in Pratapgarhi

/həmarɑ/ 'we' > /həmɾɑ/ 'we'

iii) Metathesis

In metathesis two consecutive sounds switch places. Example from Pratapgarhi language is as follows,

/mrɪttu/ 'death' > /mittu/ 'death'

/prəkɾiti/ 'nature' (Hindi) > /pərkɾiti/ 'nature' (Pratapgarhi)

4. MORPHOLOGY

Pratapgarhi is an inflexional type of language. That means, here words are formed by adding syllables or letters (i.e. affixes) or different postpositions to the stem and different endings are used to form different types of words and these affixes show no traceable signs of having been independent words

Word Formation

Word formation is the creation of a new word or lexeme from an existing one or entirely different. This brings a semantic change. This is a regular process for creation of new terms. In Pratapgarhi, word formation processes are:

Affixation

An affix is a morpheme that is attached to a word stem to form a new word. Affixes may be derivational, or inflectional. In Pratapgarhi, the affixes added to form familial relations are of inflectional nature, tending to preserve the grammatical class of the base to which it is attached. Words are formed by adding prefixes or suffixes to base as

Base	/loha/	‘iron’
Base+Suffix	/loha: + r/	‘blacksmith’
Base	/sona/	‘gold’
Base+Suffix	/sona: + r/	‘goldsmith’

In Pratapgarhi, some phonological changes take place for gender formation. Below are some of the examples

/pota/	‘son’s son’	/poti/	‘son’s daughter’
/nana/	‘mother’s father’	/nani/	‘mother’s mother’

Reduplication

Reduplication is a morphological process in which a root or stem or part of it is repeated. The available data for the language Pratapgarhi shows some examples of reduplication e.g. /dhi:re: dhi:re:/ ‘slowly’, /dzaldi: dzaldi:/ ‘fast (quick)’.

Compounding

A compound is a word containing a stem that is made up of more than one root. A compound is a lexeme that consists of more than one stem. Compounding is the word formation that creates compound lexemes by the process of derivation. In other words, compounding or word-compounding occurs when a person attaches two or more words together to make them one word. The meanings of the words interrelate in such a way that a new meaning comes out which is very different from the meanings of the words in isolation e.g. /karija:ji: mirc/ ‘black pepper’, /acha: astha:n/ ‘holy place’, etc.

Coining of new words

In Pratapgarhi language many words are borrowed from English e.g.

/ka:r/	‘car’
/ʈɛksi:/	‘taxi’
/ʈiket/	‘ticket’
/bas/	‘bus’, etc.

Pratapgarhi also shares many lexical units with Urdu/Hindi e.g.

/garam/	‘hot’
/ba:g/	‘garden’
/mahak/	‘scent’, etc.

Suppletion

Suppletion is the use of one word as the inflected form of another word when the two words are not cognate and this feature can be seen in few examples of Pratapgarhi language.

/bap/	‘father’	/ma:ji:/	‘mother’
/laʈkija:/	‘boy’	/biʈija:/	‘girl’

Word Class

A word unit is the smallest element that may be uttered in isolation having independent semantic or pragmatic content. A word is a unit which is a constituent at the phrase level. This stands in contrast to morpheme which is the smallest meaningful unit in the grammar of a language. There are open word classes, which constantly acquire new members, and also closed word classes, which acquire new members quite infrequently. Based on morphological and syntactical structure the word classes of Pratapgarhi are divided into following classes

I. **Noun** A part of speech, inflected for case, denoting a tangible or intangible entity, referring to objects in the non-linguistic world or to concepts which are considered as forming entities parallel to real-world entities e.g. /hava/ ‘air’.

II. **Pronoun** A grammatical component referring to a noun formerly mentioned and thus serving a deictic or anaphoric function e.g. /ham/ ‘I’.

III. **Adjective** A grammatical constituent, the main syntactic role of which is to qualify a noun or noun phrase, providing additional information concerning the subject or object signified e.g.

/acha:/	‘good’
/kacca: ba:/	‘raw’
/ganda: ba:/	‘dirty’

IV. **Postposition** A part of speech placed before other words in composition and which expresses the relation it has to other elements in a sentence e.g.

/hama:r ləʃke: isku:l mẽ: hẽ/ (mẽ:)
My children are in the school.

/kita:b me:ɖʒe: ke: ni:ce: ba:/ (ni:ce:)
The book is below the table.

V. **Verb** A part of speech without case inflection, but inflected for tense, person and number, signifying an activity or process, whether ongoing, completed or undergone e.g.

/mo:ʃav/	‘to bend’
/ɖhakab/	‘to cover’
/mitja:v/	‘to erase’

VI. **Adverb** A part of speech without inflection that is a modifier of a verb e.g.

/ɖʒo:r ɖʒo:r ɖʒin cilla:/ (ɖʒo:r ɖʒo:r)
Do not speak loudly.

VII. **Conjunction** A part of speech that connects two, sentences, phrases or clauses together and binds together the discourse and filling gaps in its interpretation. Pratapgarhi doesnot report conjunctives though there is an exception in story e.g.

/i:ha:r e:k billi: aur e:k kuku:r ba:/ (aur)
Here is a cat and a dog.

VIII. **Participle** a lexical item, showing some of the characteristics and functions of both verbs and adjectives e.g.

/chapi:/	‘printed’
/gira: reha:/	‘fallen’

IX. **Interjection** An interjection is a form, typically brief, such as one syllable or word, which is applied frequently as an exclamation or part of an exclamation as

/badare: mē: kitna: baḥija: indardunus ba:/
What a beautiful rainbow in the sky!

/tu: kitna: baṛa: ho:ji gija: hε/
How tall you have grown!

Noun Morphology

A noun is a member of a syntactic class that includes words which refer to people, places, things, ideas, or concepts, whose members may act as any of the following subjects of the verb, objects of the verb, indirect object of the verb, or object of a preposition or postposition. Noun Morphology deals with the forms and classification of Nouns, Pronouns and their declensional/ inflectional pattern in association with gender, Number, and Adjective, etc. The nouns in a language are generally marked by two numbers (singular and plural), three genders (i.e. masculine, feminine and neuter); and seven cases (nominative, accusative, dative, ablative, genitive, locative and instrumental).

Nouns

Internal structure

Pratapgarhi is agglutinating language. The nouns in the language are marked by two numbers (singular and plural). Nouns thus realised in Pratapgarhi can be categorized into two broad classes 1. Basic Nouns and 2. Derived nouns.

Basic Nouns

Basic Nouns are those which are a class by itself as they are not derived from any other word class. The examples are

/paha:ɾ/	‘hill’
/pa:thaɾ/	‘rock’
/lakaɾi/	‘wood’

The basic nouns can further be divided into a) Mass nouns and b) Count nouns.

Mass nouns

Mass nouns are those which do not show number distribution and cannot be counted with cardinal numeral. They always occur in singular form. For example

/dudh/	‘milk’
/pani:/	‘water’
/tel/	‘oil’

Count nouns

Count nouns are those which can take some suffixes for indicating plurality. Examples are

/ghar/	‘house’	/ghare:/	‘houses’
/ha:th/	‘hand’	/ha:the:/	‘hands’

Derived Nouns

In Pratapgarhi language some nouns are derived either from the verb or adjective or from another noun. The derived nouns are formed in two ways

- i) By adding derivational suffix to other words
- ii) By compounding words.

Derived nouns by adding derivational suffix

In Pratapgarhi some nouns can be derived from the verb or from any other noun by the addition of derivative suffixes or morphophonological changes. These are as follows

Verb + noun forming suffix = Noun (verbal Noun)

/gireb/	‘to fall down’	/gira: reha:/	‘fallen’
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External Structure

The Pratapgarhi nouns are inflected for gender, Number, and Case. This language has two genders (i.e. masculine, feminine) and neuter; and seven cases (nominative, accusative, dative, ablative, genitive, locative and instrumental). The following description gives the details of Pratapgarhi number- gender- case system.

Gender

Gender in Pratapgarhi is grammatically determined by two ways – Masculine and feminine. Most of the Pratapgarhi nouns end in vowels. The final vowel gives a clue to the gender of a particular noun. gender formation involves suffixation, phonological changes and suppletion. The general gender marker in Pratapgarhi is [i] e.g

Masculine

/ka:ka:/ ‘father’s brother’
/pota/ ‘son’s son’
/mama/ ‘mother’s brother’
/la:kija:/ ‘boy’

Feminine

/ka:ki:/ ‘father’s brother’s wife’
/poti/ ‘son’s daughter’
/mami/ ‘mother’s brother’s wife’
/bi:tija:/ ‘girl’

Examples for Masculine Nouns

Animate and Human

/la:kija:/ ‘boy’
/ba:p/ ‘father’

Animate and Non-Human

/ũt/ ‘camel’
/ullu:/ ‘owl’

Inanimate

/pa:thar/ ‘rock’
/patar/ ‘kite’

Examples for Feminine Nouns

Animate and Human

/bi:tija:/ ‘girl’
/mehra:ru:/ ‘woman’

Animate and Non-Human

/bilija:r/ ‘cat’
/titli/ ‘butterfly’

Inanimate

/dʒi:l/ ‘lake’
/na:v/ ‘boat’

Number

From the provided data it can be seen that there are two numbers in Pratapgarhi language Singular and Plural. The singular has no particular distinguishing marker added. In case of plural formation, plural marker [-e:] is added with the singular form. Plurals are also formed by some phonological changes in the singular form. Below are some of the examples

Singular

/ghar/ ‘house’
/ha:th/ ‘hand’

Plural

/ghare:/ ‘houses’
/ha:the:/ ‘hands’

Person

There are three persons in Pratapgarhi language. These are first person, second person, and third person. All these persons have different concordial relationship with the verb, tense and moods. Tense markers also change according to different persons (first person, second persons and third persons). Depending on the tense and moods these categorize are distinguished. For example

Person	Singular	Plural
First	/ham/ 'I'	/ham/ 'We'
Second	/tu/ 'you'	/tu/ 'you'
Third	/vo/ 'he' /vo/ 'she' /je:/ 'it'	/ vo/ 'they'

The different concordial relationships are shown below

First Person [Singular]

/ham badʒa:ri dʒa:ta ha:/

I go to the market. [marker is – ha:] (present tense)

/ham badʒa:ri gaje: hẽ/

I went to the market. [marker is – e:] (past tense)

/ham badʒa:re: dʒa:b/

I will go to the market. [marker is – a:b] (future tense)

First Person [Plural]

/ham sab badʒa:ri dʒa:ta ha:/

We go to the market. [marker is – ha:] (present tense)

/ham badʒa:ri gaje: hẽ/

We went to the market. [marker is – e:] (past tense)

/ham badʒa:re: dʒa:baj/

We will go to the market. [marker is – baj] (future tense)

Second Person [Singular]

/tu: badʒa:ri dʒa:ta ha:/

You (sg) go to the market. [marker is – ha:] (present tense)

/tu: badʒa:ri gaja: hẽ/

You (sg) went to the market. [marker is – a:] (past tense)

/tu: badʒa:re: dʒa:ba:/

You (sg) will go to the school. [marker is – ba:] (future tense)

Second Person [Plural]

/tu: sab baḍʒa:ri dʒa:ta ha:/

You (pl) go to the market. [marker is – ha:] (present tense)

/tu: sabhi: baḍʒa:ri gaje: hẽ/

You (pl) went to the market. [marker is – e:] (past tense)

/tu: sabhi: baḍʒa:re: dʒa:ba:/

You (pl) will go to the school. [marker is – ba:] (future tense)

Third Person [Singular]

/vo: baḍʒa:ri dʒa:ta ha:/

He goes to the market. [marker is – ha:] (present tense)

/vo: baḍʒa:ri gaja: hẽ/

He went to the market. [marker is – a:] (past tense)

/u: khe:te: mẽ: dʒa:je:/

He will go to the field. [marker is – e:] (future tense)

Third Person [Plural]

/vo: sab baḍʒa:ri dʒa:ta ha:/

They (men) go to the market. [marker is – ha:] (present tense)

/vo: sabhi: baḍʒa:ri gaje: hẽ/

They went to the market. [marker is – e:] (past tense)

/vo: sabhi: dʒaŋgal mẽ: dʒa:je: ge:/

They will go to the jungle. [marker is – e: ge:] (future tense)

Pronouns

A pronoun is a pro-form which functions like a noun and substitutes for a noun or noun phrase. Pronouns can take number, gender and case markers like the noun. A language may have several classes of pronouns. The Pratapgarhi has the following types of pronouns.

1. Personal Pronoun
2. Demonstrative Pronoun
3. Reflexive Pronoun

4. Relative Pronoun
5. Interrogative Pronoun
6. Indefinite Pronoun

1. Personal Pronoun

Personal pronouns are pronouns used as alternates for proper or common nouns. The personal pronouns are categorized into three persons (1st, 2nd and 3rd).

Person Singular Plural

	Singular	Plural
First	/ham/ (I)	/ham/ (we)
Second	/tu/ (you)	/tu/ (you-pl)
Third	/vo/ (he) /vo/ (she) /je/ (it)	/vo/ (they)

Demonstrative Pronoun

Demonstratives are deictic word that specify which entities a speaker refers to and differentiates those from others. The demonstrative pronoun in Pratapgarhi can be described in a two-tier system by taking the spatial distance into account like

- i) Proximate demonstrative pronoun referring to the objects nearer to the speaker.
- ii) Remote demonstrative pronoun that refers to the objects away from the speaker.

Again, the demonstrative pronoun can be distinguished by two-tier numbers also like

- i) Singular
- ii) Plural

	Proximate		Remote	
Singular	/je:/	‘this’	/u:/	‘that’
Plural	/e/	‘these’	/vo/	‘those’

Examples

/je: hama:r sa:thi: he/

This man is my friend. [marker- je]

/e: manaj baɽe: hẽ/
These men are tall. [marker- e:]

/u: manaj bohut mo:t ba:/
That man is fat. [marker- u]

/vo: hama:r kita:b he/
Those are my books. [marker- vo]

We can also classify Pratapgarhi demonstrative pronouns in terms of distance as

Proximate	Remote
[jihã:] ‘here’	[vuhã:] ‘there’

Examples

Here-

/ham jihã: a:vata hi:/
I come here.
/u: jehã: a:vat ba: taj/
She comes here.

There-

/o: sabhi: vuhã: dʒa:ta: hẽ/
All go there.

/kukuru: vuhã: khaɽa: ro:/
The dog is standing there.

Reflexive Pronoun

A reflexive pronoun is a pronoun that is preceded by the noun to which it refers (its antecedent) within the same clause. A reflexive pronoun is an anaphor that must be bound by its antecedent in its local domain. In Pratapgarhi language, pronouns take the following markers as reflexives

Pronoun	Singular	Plural
First	/khudaj/ ‘myself’	/khudaj/ ‘ourselves’
Second	/khudaj/ ‘yourself’	
Third	/khudaj/ ‘him/herself’ /khudaj/ ‘itself’	/apne: a:paj/ ‘themselves’

Examples

First Person Singular

/ham khudaj kha:ji: ge:/

I ate it myself.

/hami: patan khudi: bana:ji: gi:/

I made the kite myself.

First Person Plural

/ham sabe: o:har gharaj khudaj/

We went there ourselves.

Second Person Singular/Plural

/u: kapra: khudaj to: du:va:/

You wash the clothes yourself.

Third person singular

/vo: apun paṭha:ji: khudaj karat/

He studied the lessons himself.

/u: ga:gra: khudaj uṭha:jis/

She lifted the pot herself.

/o: khudaj mar gija:/

It died by itself.

Third person plural

/o: apne: a:paj apanu: ghar bana:je: hẽ/

They built the house themselves.

Interrogative Pronoun

An interrogative pronoun is used in questions to stand for the item questioned. The Interrogative pronouns in Pratapgarhi can be classified into personal and impersonal forms with examples as:

/ke:ja:/	‘who’,	/dʒe:ka:/	‘whose’	(Personal)
/ka:/	‘what’,	/kaun/	‘which’	(Impersonal)

Personal Forms

/u: ke:ja: hɛj/

Who is he?

/e: vuhaj manaja: hɛ dʒe:ka: bu:səʈ cura: uʈha: hɛ/

This is the man whose shirt was stolen last night.

Impersonal Forms

/tuha:r na:m ka: ba: hɛ/

What is your name?

/tu: kaun ga:ʈi: pakəʈ ba:/

Which train will you get?

Indefinite Pronoun

The pronouns which denote some non-definite person or thing instead of definite person or thing are called Indefinite pronouns. The examples of indefinite pronoun in Pratapgarhi are

Indefinite Pronoun (Singular)

/ke:vu:/ ‘Anybody’

/ke:vu: ji: ka:m kaj sakat hɛ/

Anybody can do this work.

/u: sab/ ‘All those’

/dʒe:ka: tu:se: bula:ja: ra:ha: u: sab a:je: hɛ/

All those you called have come.

/sab/ ‘Everyone’

/sab vuhā: gaje: hɛ/

Everyone went there.

/sab kuc/ ‘Everything’

/sab kuc ra:j ge:/
Everything is lost.

/ke:vu: na/ ‘No one’

/ji: pa:thar ke:vu: uʈha:ji: pe:/
No one can lift this stone.

/ke:hũ: na:/ ‘None’

/i: biha:h mẽ: unmẽ: se: ke:hũ: na: a:ji:/
None of them came for this marriage.

/ke:vu: na/ ‘Nobody’

/ke:vu: na ji: ka:m kaj saka:ji:/
Nobody can do this work.

Case

Case is a grammatical category determined by the syntactic or semantic function of a noun or pronoun. Like other languages, in Pratapgarhi also, semantic relation between a noun phrase or subject and a predicate is expressed by the grammatical category of case in Pratapgarhi can be

1. Nominative Case
2. Accusative Case
3. Dative Case
4. Instrumental Case
5. Ablative Case
6. genitive Case
7. Locative Case

Nominative Case

The nominative case generally marks the subject of a verb or the predicate noun or predicate adjective which is either a noun or a pronoun. In Pratapgarhi, the marker for nominative is [ϕ]. Below are some of the examples

/ham cirajji: de:kha:ta: ha:/

I-NOM bird see be-PR

I see the bird.

/kuku:r bū:kat ba:/

Dog-NOM bark be-PR

The dog barks.

In the above examples /ham/ 'I' / and /kuku:r/ 'dog' are the subjects in nominative case with zero case markers attached. Thus we see here the nominative case marker is [$\emptyset$].

Accusative Case

Accusative case is the case in nominative-accusative languages that marks certain syntactic functions, usually direct objects. In Pratapgarhi, the Accusative case marker is [$\emptyset$] e.g.

/ham ga:j ma:rata: hĩ:/

We-nom cow-ACC beat be-PR

We beat the cows.

/sika:ri: hiran pakare: ba:/

Hunter-ERG deer-acc catch be-PST

The hunter caught the deer.

Dative Case

The dative case designates the indirect object of a transitive verb. Nouns having the role of recipient (as of things given), beneficiary of an action, or possessor of an item are datives. The context plays a crucial factor in differentiating between dative and accusative. In Pratapgarhi, the dative markers are /ko/ and /e:/. The examples are as follows

/ra:m ʃa:mu: ko: kita:b de: hẽ/

Ram Shyam-DAT to book give be-PR

Ram gave the book to Shyam.

/hama:re: ghare: a:va:/

My house-DAT go-PR

Go to my house.

Instrumental Case

This case is used to denote instrument with which the action is performed. It is a case indicating that the referent of the noun. In Pratapgarhi, the case marker is [-se:]

e.g.

/hama:re: kalme: se: likhija:/

My pen-INSTR with write-PR

Write with my pen.

/bara: manaj a:ri: se: pe:t ka:t dis/

big man axe-INSTR with tree cut be-PR

The big man cut the tree with the axe.

Ablative Case

Ablative case is a case that expresses movement of the subject or the object from one place to another either at the spatial plane or at the temporal plane is expressed by the ablative case. In this language ablative case marker is [-se]. The examples are given below

/o: hama:re: dʒaŋgla: se: gir pa:ra:/

He-erg our window-ABL from fell-PR down

He fell down from my window.

/dʒula:ji: məhi:ne: se: pa:ni: barsat hɛ/

July month-ABL from rain be-PR

Rain starts from the month of July.

Genitive Case

Genitive case is a case in which the referent of the marked noun is the possessor of the referent of another noun. This case expresses the meaning of belonging to or possession of something by the subject. In Pratapgarhi, the genitive case markers are decided by their objects. The genitive case markers are [hama:r], [u:ka:], etc. Some of the examples are as follows

/vo: hama:r kita:b hɛ/

Those my-GEN book be-PR

Those are my books.

/o: u:ka: ca:ku: hɛ/

That his-GEN knife be-PR

That is his knife.

Locative Case

Locative case is a case that expresses location at the referent of the noun it marks. The location of the subject or object is expressed by the locative case marker. In Pratapgarhi the locative case markers are [e], [a:], etc followed by the postpositions like [mẽ:], [ləgije:], [ni:ce:], etc. Below are some of the examples

/u: bagajca: mē: dʒa:j ke: cirajji: ma:r de:s/

He garden-LOC in bird kill be-PST

He killed the bird in the garden.

/isku:l ke: ləgije: a:va:/

School-LOC near come-PR

Come near the school.

/kita:b me:dʒe: ke: ni:ce: ba:/

Book table-LOC below be-PR

The book is below the table.

Verb Morphology

A verb is a member of the syntactic class of words that signals events and actions constitute, singly or in a phrase, a minimal predicate in a clause, govern the number and types of other constituents which may occur in the clause. Verb is a form class that marks tense – aspect – modal – personal markers distinguished by number and gender. In inflectional languages, verbs may be inflected for tense, aspect, and voice, and modality, agreement with other constituents in terms of person, number and grammatical gender. Verb Morphology deals with the forms and classification of verbs, and their pattern in association, etc. The description of Pratapgarhi verb is given below

Types of Verb

A verb denotes action. Different types of actions from the provided data are given below

a) Physical Activity Verbs

List of different physical activity verb from the provided data is given below

/ba:ndav/	‘to bind’
/ka:ʈav/	‘to bite’
/mo:ʈav/	‘to bend (a stick)’

b) Instrument Verbs

List of different instrument verb from the provided data is given below

/lakari: ka:tab/	‘chop (fire wood)’
/gaḍḍa: kho:dab/	‘dig (a hole)’
/to:t de:b/	‘scoop out’

c) Verbs of fighting

List of different verbs of fighting from the provided data is given below

/ḍapṭak/	‘to attack’
/gaṭaj daba:v/	‘to strangle’
/laṛa:ji: karna:/	‘to quarrel’

d) Music Verbs

List of different music verb from the provided data is given below

/ḍho:l baḍḍa:v/	‘to beat (a drum)’
/ga:na: ga:v/	‘to sing’

e) Motion Verbs

List of different motion verb from the provided data is given below

/ghasi:ṭeb/	‘to drag (a heavy object)’
/gireb/	‘to fall down’

Classification of Verb

The Pratapgarhi verb stems can be classified into simple and compound verbs.

a) Simple Verb

A simple verb is composed of monomorphemic single root with or without a suffix. The verb is conjugated with aspect–gender–number–personal markers. The conjugational pattern of vowel ending and consonant ending verb roots are given below

/ham baḍḍa:ri ḍḍa:ta ha:/
I go to the market.

/ham sab cirajji: de:kha:ta: ha:/
We see the bird.

/tu: jihā: a:va: hi:/
You (sg.) come here.

/tu: sabhi: jihā: a:va: hi:/
You (pl.) come here.

/vo: baḍʒa:ri gaja: hɛ/
He went to the market.

/vo: baḍʒa:ri gaji: hɛ/
She went to the market.

/i: baḍʒa:re: ḍʒa:je:/
It will go to the market.

/o: sab baḍʒa:re: gaje: hẽ/
They had gone to the market.

The above examples show how simple verbs function in Pratapgarhi language.

b) Compound Verb

A Compound verb consists of more than one root and may include one or more suffixes
e.g.

Compound Verbs with root [karab] and [ma:rab].

/band /	‘close’	+	/karab/	‘to do’	=	/band karab/	‘to close (a bag)’
/nija:j/	‘justice’	+	/karab/	‘to do’	=	/nija:j karab/	‘to judge’
/go:li:/	‘bullet’	+	/ma:rab/	‘to hit’	=	/go:li: ma:rab /	‘to shoot’
/tho:kar/	‘kick’	+	/ma:rab /	‘to hit’	=	/tho:kar ma:rab/	‘to kick’

Inflection of Verb

The verbs in Pratapgarhi can be studied with respect to their transitivity, Finiteness, non-finiteness, negation, Causativization and Passivization.

Transitivity

The number of arguments that a verb takes is called its *transitivity*. Based on transitivity the verb stems can be further divided into three sub-classes. These are 1. Intransitive and 2. Transitive.

1. Intransitive The verbs which do not take any object. Examples of Intransitive verbs are

/uba:l̪na:/ 'to boil'

/pa:ni: ublat ba:/
Water boils.

/daʊɾab/ 'to run'

/go:ɾa: douɾat ba:/
The horse runs.

2. Transitive The verbs which take an object. The examples of transitive verbs are

/kha:na:/ 'to eat'

/ham ro:t̪i: kha:taj hi:/
I eat bread.

/daʊɾab/ 'to run'

/u: go:ɾa: douɾa:vat hɛ/
She runs the horse.

3. Ditransitive The verb has a subject, a direct object, and an indirect object e.g.

/to:ɾab/ 'to pick (fruit from tree)'

/ləɾkijan pe:ɾe: se: phal to:ɾ le: hɛ/
The child picked the fruit from the tree.

Finiteness

A finite verb is a verb form that which occurs in an independent clause and is fully inflected according to the inflectional categories marked on verbs in the language. Having the verb roots as the base both Finite and Non-finite verbal formations are realised in Pratapgarhi. The components of finite verb are Tense, Aspect and Mood.

The formations of the verb /ɖʒa:ɳa:/ 'to go' of Pratapgarhi language, for three different persons and different tenses are given below

Tense

Verbs in Pratapgarhi are morphologically marked for three-tier tense as

1. Present Tense
2. Past Tense
3. Future Tense

The following examples show the tense formations in Pratapgarhi taking /dʒa:vaj/ ‘to go’ as the model verb root

Present Indefinite Tense

Person	Singular	Verb Form	Plural	Verb Form
First	/ham/ I	/dʒa:ta ha:/	/ham/ we	/dʒa:ta ha:/
Second	/tu/ you	/dʒa:ta ha:/	/ tu/ you	/dʒa:ta ha:/
Third	/vo:/ he	/dʒa:ta ha:/	/vo:/ they	/dʒa:ta ha:/
	/vo/ she	/dʒa:ti hi:/		

The markers to show number (singular and plural) and gender (masculine and feminine) in Pratapgarhi language for present indefinite are [ha:] and [hi:]. The examples are given below

/ham badʒa:ri dʒa:ta ha:/	I go to the market.
/ham sab badʒa:ri dʒa:ta ha:/	We go to the market.
/tu: badʒa:ri dʒa:ta ha:/	You (sg) go to the market.
/tu: sab badʒa:ri dʒa:ta ha:/	You (pl) go to the market.
/vo: badʒa:ri dʒa:ta ha:/	He goes to the market.
/vo: badʒa:ri dʒa:ti hi:/	She goes to the market.
/vo: sab badʒa:ri dʒa:ta ha:/	They (men) go to the market.

Past Indefinite Tense

Person	Singular	Verb Form	Plural	Verb Form
First	/ham/ I	/gaje: hẽ /	/ham/ we	/gaje: hẽ /
Second	/tu/ you	/gaja: hẽ/	/ tu/ you	/gaje: hẽ /
Third	/vo:/ he	/gaja: hẽ/	/vo:/ they	/gaje: hẽ/
	/vo/ she	/gaji: hẽ/		

The markers to show number (singular and plural) and gender (masculine and feminine) in Pratapgarhi language for past simple are [e], [a:] and [i:]. The examples are given below

/ham badʒa:ri gaje: hẽ/	I went to the market.
/ham badʒa:ri gaje: hẽ/	We went to the market.
/tu: badʒa:ri gaja: hẽ/	You (sg) went to the market.
/tu: sabhi: badʒa:ri gaje: hẽ/	You (pl) went to the market.
/vo: badʒa:ri gaja: hẽ/	He went to the market.
/vo: badʒa:ri gaji: hẽ/	She went to the market.
/vo: sabhi: badʒa:ri gaje: hẽ/	They went to the market.

Simple Future Tense

Person	Singular	Verb Form	Plural	Verb Form
First	/ham/ I	/dʒa:b/	/ham/ we	/dʒa:baj/
Second	/tu/ you	/dʒa:ba:/	/ tu/ you	/dʒa:ba:/
Third	/u:/ he /i/ she	/dʒa:je:/ /dʒa:ji:/	/vo:/ they	/dʒa:je: ge:/

The markers to show number (singular and plural) and gender (masculine and feminine) in Pratapgarhi language for future simple are [baj/ba], [je/ji:] and [ge:]. The examples are given below

/ham badʒa:re: dʒa:b/	I will go to the market.
/ham badʒa:re: dʒa:baj/	We will go to the market.
/tu: isku:le: dʒa:ba:/	You (sg) will go to the school.
/tu: sabhi: isku:le: dʒa:ba:/	You (pl) will go to the school.
/u: khe:te: mẽ: dʒa:je:/	He will go to the field.
/i: khe:te: mẽ: dʒa:ji:/	She will go to the field.
/vo: sabhi: dʒaŋgal mẽ: dʒa:je: ge:/	They will go to the jungle.

(Note The above data reveals that there is lexical choice or lexical variation in pronominal system of Pratapgarhi language).

Aspect

Aspect is a grammatical category associated with verbs that expresses a temporal view of the event or state expressed by the verb. Aspectual information implies is related with duration, perfection, habituality, etc. Pratapgarhi has three aspects interpreted in different tenses. These are

- i. Imperfective Aspect
- ii. Perfective Aspect
- iii. Habitual Aspect

i) Imperfective Aspect

Imperfective aspect is an aspect that expresses an event or state, with respect to its internal structure, instead of expressing it as a simple whole. It depicts an action which is considered as continuous in the past, present or future tenses.

The following examples show the progressive markers in Pratapgarhi taking /dʒa:ŋa:/ 'to go' as the model verb root

Present Imperfective Aspect

Person	Singular	Verb Form	Plural	Verb Form
First	/ham/ I	/dʒa:ta: hĩ:/	/ham/ we	/dʒa:ta: hĩ:/
Second	/tu/ you	/dʒa:ta: hẽ:/	/tu/ you	/dʒa:te: hẽ:/
Third	/o/ he /o/ she	/dʒa:ta: hẽ/ /dʒa:ti: hĩ:/	/o:/ they	/dʒa:te: hẽ:/

The aspect markers to show number (singular and plural) and gender (masculine and feminine) in Pratapgarhi language for present imperfective are [-a: hĩ:], [-a: hẽ], [-e: hẽ] and [-i: hĩ:]. The examples are given below

/ham badʒa:re: dʒa:ta: hĩ:/	I am going to the market.
/ham badʒa:re: dʒa:ta: hĩ:/	We are going to the market.
/tu: badʒa:re: dʒa:ta: hẽ:/	You (sg) are going to the market.
/tu: sabhe: badʒa:re: dʒa:te: hẽ:/	You (pl) are going to the market.
/o: badʒa:re: dʒa:ta: hẽ:/	He is going to the market.
/o: badʒa:re: dʒa:ti: hĩ:/	She is going to the market.

Past Imperfective Aspect

Person	Singular	Verb Form	Plural	Verb Form
First	/ham/ I	/dʒat rahe: hẽ:/	/ham/ we	/dʒat rahe: hẽ:/
Second	/tu/ you	/dʒa:t raha: hẽ:/	/tu/ you	/dʒa:t rahe: hẽ:/
Third	/o/ he /o/ she	/dʒa:t raha: hẽ/ /dʒa:t rahi: hẽ:/	/o:/ they	/dʒa:t rahe: hẽ:/

The aspect markers to show number (singular and plural) and gender (masculine and feminine) in Pratapgarhi language for past imperfective are [rahe: hẽ], [raha: hẽ] and [rahi: hẽ] with some phonological changes in the verb root. The examples are given below

/ham badʒa:re: dʒat rahe: hẽ:/	I was going to the market.
/ham sabhi: badʒa:re: dʒa:t rahe: hẽ:/	We were going to the market.

/tu: badʒa:re: dʒa:t raha: hɛ/	You (sg) were going to the market.
/tu: sab badʒa:re: dʒa:t rahe: hɛ̃/	You (pl) were going to the market.
/o: badʒa:re: dʒa:t raha: hɛ/	He was going to the market.
/o: badʒa:re: dʒa:t rəhi: hɛ/	She was going to the market.
/o: sabe: badʒa:re: dʒa:t rahe: hɛ̃/	They were going to the market.

Future Imperfective Aspect

Person	Singular	Verb Form	Plural	Verb Form
First	/ham/ I	/dʒa:b/	/ham/ we	/dʒab/
Second	/tu/ you	/dʒa:ba:/	/tu/ you	/dʒa:ba:/
Third	/vo/ he /vo/ she	/dʒa:ji: hã:/ /dʒa:ji: hĩ:/	/vo:/ they	/dʒa:ji: hĩ:/

The aspect markers to show number (singular and plural) and gender (masculine and feminine) in Pratapgarhi language for future imperfective are [ba:], [ji: hã:], and [ji: hĩ:]. The examples are given below

/ham badʒa:re: dʒa:b/	I will be going to the market.
/ham sabhi: badʒa:re: dʒa:b/	We will be going to the market.
/tu: khe:te: mẽ: dʒa:ba:/	You (sg) will be going to the field.
/tu: səbhi: khe:te: mẽ: dʒa:ba:/	You (pl) will be going to the field.
/vo: khe:te: mẽ: dʒa:ji: hã:/	He will be going to the field.
/vo: khe:te: mẽ: dʒa:ji: hĩ:/	She will be going to the field.
/vo: sab khe:te: mẽ: dʒa:ji: hĩ:/	They will be going to the field.

Perfective Aspect

Perfective aspect is an aspect that expresses a temporal view of an event or state as a simple whole, apart from the consideration of the internal structure of the time in which it occurs. The examples in Pratapgarhi are

Present Perfective Aspect

Person	Singular	Verb Form	Plural	Verb Form
First	/ham/ I	/a:ji: raha:/	/ham/ we	/gaje: raha: hɛ̃/
Second	/tu/ you	/gaje: ho:/	/tu/ you	/gaje: hɛ̃/
Third	/o/ he /o/ she	/gaje: hɛ̃/ /gəji: hi:/	/o:/ they	/gaje: hɛ̃/

The aspect markers to show number (singular and plural) and gender (masculine and feminine) in Pratapgarhi language for present perfective are [raha:], [-je: ho:], [-je: hẽ] and [-ji: hi:]. The examples are given below

/ham badʒa:re: a:ji: raha:/	I have gone to the market.
/ham badʒa:re: gaje: raha: hẽ/	We have gone to the market.
/tu: badʒa:re: gaje: ho:/	You (sg) have gone to the market.
/tu: sabhi: badʒa:re: gaje: hẽ/	You (pl) have gone to the market.
/o: badʒa:re: gaje: hẽ/	He has gone to the market.
/o: badʒa:re: gəji: hi:/	She has gone to the market.
/o: sab badʒa:re: gaje: hẽ/	They have gone to the market

Past Perfective Aspect

Person	Singular	Verb Form	Plural	Verb Form
First	/ham/ I	/gaje: hẽ/	/ham/ we	/gaje: hẽ/
Second	/tu:/ you	/gaja: hẽ/	/tu:/ you	/gaje: hẽ/
Third	/o/ he /o/ she	/gaja: hẽ/ /gaji: hẽ/	/o:/ they	/gaje: hẽ/

The aspect markers to show number (singular and plural) and gender (masculine and feminine) in Pratapgarhi language for past perfective are [-je: hẽ], [-ja: hẽ] and [-ji hẽ]. The examples are given below

/ham badʒa:re: gaje: hẽ/	I had gone to the market.
/ham badʒa:re: gaje: hẽ/	We had gone to the market.
/tu: badʒa:re: gaja: hẽ/	You (sg) had gone to the market.
/tu: sabhi: badʒa:re: gaje: hẽ/	You (pl) had gone to the market.
/u: badʒa:re: gaja: hẽ/	He had gone to the market.
/o: badʒa:re: gaji: hẽ/	She had gone to the market.
/o: sab badʒa:re: gaje: hẽ/	They had gone to the market.

Future Perfective Aspect

Person	Singular	Verb Form	Plural	Verb Form
First	/ham/ I	/gej rahe:/	/ham/ we	/gej rahe: hẽ/
Second	/tu:/ you	/gaja: hẽ/	/tu:/ you	/gaj raha: hẽ/
Third	/o/ he /o/ she	/cala: go: ho:/ /cəli: gəji: huji: hĩ:/	/vo:/ they	/cala: go: huji: hũ:/

The aspect markers to show number (singular and plural) and gender (masculine and feminine) in Pratapgari language for future perfective are [rahe:], [raha: hẽ], [go: ho:] and [huji: hĩ:/hũ:]. The examples are given below

/ham badʒa:re: geʒ rahe:/	I shall have gone to the market.
/ham sabhi: badʒa:re: geʒ rahe: hẽ/	We will have gone to the market.
/tu: badʒa:re: gaja: hẽ/	You (sg) will have gone to the market.
/tu: sabhi: badʒa:re: gaj raha: hẽ/	You (pl) will have gone to the market.
/o: badʒa:re: cala: go: ho:/	He will have gone to the market.
/o: badʒa:re: celi: gəji: huji: hĩ:/	She will have gone to the market.
/vo: sabhi: badʒa:re: cala: go: huji: hũ:/	They will have gone to the market.

Habitual Aspect

It describes an action which happens/happened or will happen habitually or regularly.

Present Habitual Aspect

The finite verb ends with [-ha:], [-te:], etc. Some examples are given below

/vo: cirajji: de:kha:ta: ha:/

He sees the bird.

/ham ro:ɖ ga:j du:dh du:hi: te:/

We milk the cows everyday.

Past Habitual Aspect

The finite verb ends with [ɖʒa:j thi:], [ɖʒa:t rahe:], [ɖʒa:t hẽ] [ɖʒã:j], [ɖʒa:ta: hĩ:] and [ɖʒa:t ra: hẽ]. Some examples are given below

/ham nav badʒe: a:fis ɖʒa:j thi:/	I used to go to office at 9 o'clock.
/nav badʒe: a:fis ɖʒa:t rahe:/	We used to go to office at 9 o'clock.
/tu: nav badʒe: duka:n ɖʒa:t hẽ/	You (pl) used to go to shop at 9 o'clock.
/o: nav badʒe: badʒa:re: ɖʒã:j/	He used to go to market at 9 o'clock.
/o: nav badʒe: a:fis ɖʒa:ta: hĩ:/	She used to go to office at 9 o'clock.
/o: nav badʒe: khe:t ɖʒa:t ra: hẽ/	They used to go to field at 9 o'clock.

Mood

Mood is one of a set of distinctive forms that are used to signal modality. The mode or manner of a speaker is expressed by mood. It incorporates a statement, a command, a question,

a doubt etc. From the given data we have following types of moods in the Pratapgarhi language which are presented below

i) Indicative Mood

Most verbs in this language used are in indicative mood, which indicates the action e.g.

/ham cirajji: de:kha:ta: ha:/

I-nom bird see be-pr

I see the bird.

/uha:r du: ga:j hĩ:/

there two cow-pl be-pr

There are two cows.

ii) Imperative Mood

Verb in the imperative mood denotes command or request. This mood always occurs with second person. Though it is not present in the sentence but the sense must be there and it is always understood that it denotes the second person e.g.

/gha:s haṭa:va/

grass remove-imp

Remove the grass.

/jeh kitabije: paṭha:/

this book read-imp

Read this book.

iii) Subjunctive Mood

In the subjunctive mood, the sense is to suppose or desire an action e.g.

/agar vo: mehnat kajre: safal ḍḍaru:r hoji ḍḍa:/

if he hardwork do-pr conj-ϕ success surely be-fut

If he works hard he will succeed.

iv) Optative mood

The optative mood expresses a desire, wish, permission or request in a sentence which is expressed in following way in Pratapgarhi

/u:na: sab ko: a:vaj de:/
 they-dat all come-fut.must
 Let them all come.

v) Compulsive Mood

The compulsion on the part of the subject is expressed in compulsive mood. In Pratapgarhi language the examples of compulsive mood are

/ca:he: dʒajse: tōhẽ: a:ve: ba:/
 any situation you com-fut. must
 Anyhow you must come.

vi) Potential Mood

The potential action is expressed in potential mood. In this language the example of Potential mood is

/u: cirajji: ma:r sakat hẽ/
 he bird-dat kill-fut.
 He may kill the bird.

vii) Conditional Mood

When the completion of one verbal action is conditioned by another verb that particular manner of expression is called as Conditional modal category. In this mood two verbal actions are involved simultaneously. Examples of conditional moods in Pratapgarhi language are

/agar ham ʈhi:k huj dʒa: to: biha:n a:v/
 if I well be-pr conj tomorrow come-fut.
 If I am well I will come tomorrow.

Non-Finite

Verbal Noun

A verbal noun is formed by adding a noun suffix to a verb.

Here the process is Verb + noun forming suffix = Noun (verbal Noun) [*v* + *non-finite marker*] e.g.

/gireb/ ‘to fall down’ + /reha:/ = /gira: reha:/ ‘fallen’

Infinitives

An infinitive form is *to* + the verb. Some verbs can take either the gerund or the infinitive with no loss of meaning e.g.

/ham nav badʒe: a:fis dʒa:j thi:/
I used to go to office at 9 o'clock.

/o: nav badʒe: a:fis dʒa:ta: hĩ:/
She used to go to office at 9 o'clock.

Gerund

Gerunds and infinitives are forms of verbs that act like nouns. They can follow adjectives and other verbs. Since it is a kind of noun, it may be the subject or object to some verb e.g.

/dovva: gouʒa: pe: caʃ ke: kija: dʒa:t/
Running is done by the horse'

/bõ:kan va:la: kuku:r ka:ʃte: na:ji:/
Barking dogs seldom bite.

Participles

A participle is a word that shares some characteristics of both verbs and adjectives. It is also called verbal adjective. A participle is a word formed from a verb that can function as part of a verb phrase e.g.

/gira: reha: phal o:ka: e:k da:re: baʃu:r dare: rəhi:/
She collected the fallen fruit.

Negation

Negation is a morph syntactic in which a lexical item denies or inverts the meaning of another lexical item or construction. In Pratapgarhi, negative verbs are realized mostly by particles like [dʒin] and [nəhi:] e.g.

/dʒo:r dʒo:r dʒin cilla:/
Do not speak loudly.

/ra:mu: bi:han nəhi: a:je:/
Ramu will not come tomorrow.

/a:gi: ke: lage: dʒin dʒa:/

Do not go near the fire.

Causativization

A causative is a grammatical or lexical indication of the causal role of a referent in relation to an event or state expressed by a verb. In Pratapgarhi, causative verbs are

/ham da:ji: se: ləʔkija: ku: khila:vat hɛ/

I make the nurse feed the baby.

/ham maɖʒdu:rũ: se: khe:te: mẽ: ka:m kara:vat hɛ/

I make the servant work in the field.

Adjectives

An adjective is a word that belongs to a class whose members modify nouns. An adjective specifies the properties or attributes of a noun referent. In this language adjectives occur before noun and remain unchanged for any change in gender and number.

Attributive adjectives

These are noun phrase headed by the modifier noun e.g.

/baʔija: ləʔkija:/

The good boy.

/cho:t ləʔkija:/

The small child.

/ca:la:k ləʔki:/

The clever girl.

Predicative Adjectives

These are linked via a copula or other connecting device to the noun or pronoun they modify e.g.

/u: manaj bohut mo:t ba:/

That man is fat.

/o: sab ləʔki: bəʔi: achi: hɛ/

Those girls are beautiful.

/je: bohut balva:n hɛ/
Those men are strong.

Numerals

Pratapgarhi exhibits numerals of both the Cardinal and the ordinal type

Cardinal Numerals

/e:k/	‘one’	/do:/	‘two’
/ti:n/	‘three’	/ca:r/	‘four’
/pã:c/	‘five’	/che:/	‘six’
/sa:t/	‘seven’	/a:ʈh/	‘eight’
/nau/	‘nine’	/das/	‘ten’
/pãytis/	‘thirty five’	/beyalis/	‘forty two’
/pəncanbe/	‘ninety five’	/səu/	‘hundred’
/pəcsəu/	‘five hundred’	/həɖʒar/	‘thousand’

Ordinal Numerals

Ordinals are not formed by adding inflectional suffixes but in Pratapgarhi they have separate lexemes e.g.

/pehla/	‘first’
/du:sra:/	‘second’
/ti:sra:/	‘third’
/əntim/	‘last’

Fractions

The fractions terms in Pratapgarhi are

/dɛ:ʈh/	‘one and a half’
/dʱa:ji:/	‘two and a half’
/tin/	‘three fourth’
/səwa/	‘one and a quarter’
/pa:v/	‘quarter’

Formation of Numerals

The data shows that the numerals in Pratapgarhi are formed by affixation (prefixation and suffixation). From one to twelve Pratapgarhi has different lexeme for each numeral but the other numerals from thirteen to ninety-nine are formed by adding different suffixes and prefixes like [-ra:], [da:], [-la:], [tis/lis], [-van], [-saʈh], [thar], [-si:] and [-ve]. Below are some of the examples

/gja:ra:/	‘eleven’	/untis/	‘twenty nine’	/unhathar/	‘sixty nine’
/ba:ra:/	‘twelve’	/iktis/	‘thirty one’	/ikhathar/	‘seventy one’
/te:ra:/	‘thirteen’	/pajtis/	‘thirty five’	/pachathar/	‘seventy five’
/couda:/	‘fourteen’	/unta:lis/	‘thirty nine’	/una:si:/	‘seventy nine’
/pandra:/	‘fifteen’	/ikta:lis/	‘forty one’	/ikja:si:/	‘eighty one’
/so:la:/	‘sixteen’	/bija:lis/	‘forty two’	/paca:si:/	‘eighty five’
/sata:ra:/	‘seventeen’	/pājta:lis/	‘forty five’	/una:nve:/	‘eighty nine’
/aṭha:ra:/	‘eighteen’	/unca:s/	‘forty nine’	/ikja:nve:/	‘ninety one’
/unajis/	‘nineteen’	/ikja:van/	‘fifty one’	/paca:nve:/	‘ninety five’
/bi:s/	‘twenty’	/pacpan/	‘fifty five’	/naninve:/	‘ninety nine’
/ikajis/	‘twenty one’	/unsatḥ/	‘fifty nine’	/sau/	‘hundred’
/ba:jis/	‘twenty two’	/iksatḥ/	‘sixty one’	/ti:n sau/	‘three hundred’
/pəcis/	‘twenty five’	/pājsatḥ/	‘sixty five’	/pā:c sau/	‘five hundred’

Classifiers

The classifier is denoted by the use of cardinal numeral to refer persons e.g.

/jiha:r e:k billi: ba:/

Here is a cat.

/e:k/ is used to denote singularity.

/o: sabhi: vuhā: dʒa:ta: hẽ/

All go there.

/sabhi:/ is used to denote plurality.

/i: sab hama:r ghara: hẽ/

These are my houses.

/i: sab/ is used to denote multitude.

Adverb

Adverb qualifies verb, adjectives and also an adverb. Below are some of the examples

Adverb of Time : The time adverbials precede the verb e.g.

/bi:han/

‘tomorrow’

/ra:mu: bi:han nəhi: a:je:/

‘Ramu will not come tomorrow’.

Adverb of Place : Place adverbials also precede the verb e.g.

/jihã:/

‘here’

/ham jihã: a:vata hi:/

‘I come here.’

Adverb of Manner: Like all other adverbs this type also occurs before the verb e.g.

/ dhi:re: dhi:re:/

‘slowly’

/dhi:re: dhi:re: bo:la:/

‘Speak slowly’.

5. SYNTAX

Syntax is the study of the principles and rules for constructing phrases and sentences in natural languages and rules governing the order of combining the words to form sentences in a language. A syntactic category is a set of words and/or phrases in a language which share a significant number of common characteristics. The classification is based on similar structure and sameness of distribution (the structural relationships between these elements and other items in a larger grammatical structure), and not on meaning. The syntax of Pratapgarhi is discussed below:

Word- Order

Word order typology is the study of the order of the syntactic constituents of a language. The primary word order that is of interest is the relative ordering of subject, object, and verb in a sentence. The Word order in Pratapgarhi is of SOV (subject-object-verb) pattern e.g.

/ham cirajji: de:kha:ta: ha:/

I bird see-pr

I see the bird.

/o: sab pa:ni: uba:lata: hẽ/

they water boil-pr

They boil water.

Types of Sentences

A sentence is a grammatical unit that is composed of one or more clauses. The sentences in Pratapgarhi can be classified into

- i. Simple Sentences
- ii. Complex Sentences
- iii. Compound Sentences

Simple Sentence

The simple sentence consists of a subject and a predicate. It is a sentence structure that contains one independent clause and no dependent clauses e.g.

/ham cirajji: de:kha:ta: ha:/

I see the bird.

/o: sab pa:ni: uba:lata: hẽ/
They boil water.

The predicate may be a finite intransitive or transitive verb. The most common simple sentence, however, consists of a nominative subject and a finite verb as predicate e.g.

/ham jihã: a:vata hi:/

I come here.

Compound Sentence

A compound sentence is a sentence composed of two or more coordinate clauses. In Pratapgarhi, the connectives used are [aur], [o:] and [dʒe:] but most of the sentences do not take any connectives. Below are some of the examples

/hama:ra: bha:ji: aur bahen ghar bejiṯ hẽ/
My brothers and sisters are in the house.

/i:ha:r e:k billi: aur e:k kuku:r ba:/

Here is a cat and a dog.

/dʒe: manaj kal mara: hẽ u: e:k ga:jak ra: hũ:/

The man who died yesterday was a singer.

/hama:r go:ṯ chaṯak ga: ham gir gaje:/

My foot slipped and I fell down.

Complex Sentence

A sentence having one principal clause followed by one or more subordinate clause (s) is known as a complex sentence. The independent clause can stand alone e.g.

/dʒe: manaj kal mara: hẽ u: e:k ga:jak ra: hũ:/

The man who died yesterday was a singer.

/agar vo: mehnat kajre: safal dʒaru:r hoji dʒa:/

If he works hard he will succeed.

Sentences in Pratapgarhi can further be sub-classified into

- i. Statement Sentence
- ii. Interrogative Sentence
- iii. Imperative Sentence
- iv. Purposive Sentence

- v. Potential Sentence
- vi. Conditional Sentence
- vii. Negative Sentence
- viii. Causative Sentence
- ix. Passive Sentence

i) Statement Sentence

The sentence which affirms a statement. The Pratapgarhi example is given below

/ham cirajji: de:kha:ta: ha:/
I see the bird.

ii) Interrogative Sentence

The sentence which indicates a question e.g.

/tuha:r na:m ka: ba: hε/
What is your name?

iii) Imperative Sentence

The sentence which implies a request, a command, an advice, etc. The example is given below

/gha:s haṭa:va/
Remove the grass.

iv) Purposive Sentence

The sentence which expresses a purpose e.g.

/o: go:ṭa: be:ce: gi: to: tajja:r hε/
That horse is to be sold.

v) Potential Sentence

When the potentiality is expressed in a sentence
e.g.

/ham a:ji: sakit hε/
I may come.

vi) Conditional sentence

When two actions are conditioned by each other in a single sentence e.g.

/agar go:ɽa: ko: pāk ho:te: to: voh uɽ dʒa:te:/
If horses had wings they would have flown.

vii) Passive sentence

The sentence where the main action is expressed in passive is called passive sentence. Below are some of the examples

/ro:ɽi: ham kha:ji: dʒa:t ba:/
Bread is being eaten by me.

viii) Causative Sentence

The causative sentences are formed by suffixing causative marker to the verb which varies according to the person. When the subject causes some agent to do the action we get causative sentence e.g.

/ham da:ji: se: ləɽkija: ku: khila:vat hɛ/
I make the nurse feed the baby.

/ham maɽɽdu:rũ: se: khe:te: mē: ka:m kara:vat hɛ/
I make the servant work in the field.

ix) Negative Sentence

The sentence which expresses the negation e.g.
/kal ham na:ji: a:vo:/
I shall not come tomorrow.

/u: ka:m na:hi: ki: hes/
He did not do the work.

Structure of Phrases

A phrase is a syntactic structure that consists of more than one word but lacks the subject-predicate organization of a clause. The phrasal sub-division in Pratapgarhi is as follows

i. Noun Phrase

A noun phrase or nominal phrase, (NP) combines with other words in a noun phrase, optionally accompanied by modifiers like adjectives and intensifiers e.g.

/hama:r ləʃke: isku:l gova:/
My son has gone to the school.

/tohre: ko:ʃ ki: sija:hi: ki: hi: dʒa:t ba:/
Your coat is being stitched.

ii. Verb Phrase

A verb phrase (VP) is a phrase that has the syntactic role of a simple verb, and is composed of a main verb and auxiliary verbs or verbal particles related syntactically to the verb. In generative grammar, a verb phrase is a syntactic unit that corresponds to the predicate. In addition to the verb, this includes auxiliaries, objects, object complements, and other constituents apart from the subject. These are inflected for person, number and gender. The predicate may be a finite intransitive or transitive verb e.g.

/ham ro:ʃi: kha:taj hi:/
I eat bread.

/ham aŋgu:r bo:ʃi: the:/
We grow grapes.

iii. Postpositional Phrase

A postposition is an adposition that occurs after its complement. An adpositional phrase is a syntactic category that includes prepositional phrases (PP) and postpositional phrases (PSP).

Here the postposition is in the head position and usually a complement such as a noun phrase follows it e.g.

/kita:b me:dʒe: ke: ni:ce: ba:/
The book is below the table.

/ciraʃji: ma:tha: ku: u:par se: uʃ gəʃi:/
The bird flew over the head.

iv. Adjectival Phrase

In an adjectival phrase, the adjective acts as the head of the phrase. An adjectival phrase consists of an adjective followed by a noun, intensifiers or adverbs followed by adjective and noun, thereby making the structure more complex e.g.

/baʈija: ləʈkija:/

The good boy.

/tuha:r duj kita:b/

Two books of yours.

v. Adverbial Phrase

An adverb is a lexical category whose members have the same syntactic distribution and which modifies adjectives, other adverbs, verbs, or whole clauses or sentences. An adverb phrase has an adverb that complements the verb e.g

/dʒo:r dʒo:r dʒin cilla:/

Do not speak loudly.

/dhi:re: dhi:re: bo:la:/

Speak slowly.

Passivization

Passivization indicates that the subject is the patient or recipient of the action denoted by the verb. A passive sentence is created from an active sentence by i) bringing object to the subject position ii) putting subject to the object position iii) adding 'by' iv) changing the verb form to its participle form. Below are some of the examples

/ro:tʃi: ham kha:ʃi: dʒa:t ba:/

Bread is being eaten by me.

/tohre: ko:t ki: si:ʃa:hi: ki: hi: dʒa:t ba:/

Your coat is being stitched.

Negation

Negation is a morpho-syntactic operation in which a lexical item denies or inverts the meaning of another lexical item or construction. In an ordered sentence the negative element comes with the verb of the sentence e.g.

/kal ham na:ji: a:vo:/
I shall not come tomorrow.

/u: ka:m na:hi: ki: hes/
He did not do the work.

Causativization

The causative sentences are formed by suffixing causative marker to the verb which varies according to the person. Causative indicates that a subject cause someone or something else to do or be something e.g.

/ham da:ji: se: ləŋkija: ku: khila:vat hɛ/
I make the nurse feed the baby.

/ham maɟdu:rũ: se: khe:te: mẽ: ka:m kara:vat hɛ/
I make the servant work in the field.

Structure of Clause

Relative Clause

A relative clause is a kind of subordinate clause, one of whose arguments share a referent with a main clause element on which the subordinate clause is grammatically dependent

It is introduced by a relative pronoun, a relative adverb, or a zero relative. It is also called an adjective clause that limits or provides essential information about the noun or noun phrase (NP) it modifies. Below are some of the examples of Pratapgarhi

/ɖɛ: manaj kal mara: hɛ u: e:k ga:ɟak ra: hũ:/
The man who died yesterday was a singer.

/ɖɔ:n aurat kal toh se: ba:tja: rəhi: vo: hama:r bahen hɛ/
The woman who talked to you is my sister.

Correlative Clause

In this type of clause, a paired conjunction (such as not only . . . but also, either...or, neither...nor) links balanced words, phrases, and clauses. The elements connected by correlative conjunctions are usually parallel, that is, similar in length and grammatical form. Each element is called conjoin. An example of Pratapgarhi is given below

/na: voh goje: baɖʒa:re: na: ham gaje: baɖʒa:re:/
Neither he nor I went to the market.

6. CONCLUSION

In the foregoing discussion the detailed grammatical structure of Pratapgarhi has been presented with illustration based on collected data from field. According to the presentation the Pratapgarhi shares the features of Indo-Aryan language family

1. Phonological – Pratapgarhi natively possesses a symmetrical ten-vowel system and has a core set of 28 consonants inherited from earlier Indo-Aryan. Supplementing these are two consonants that are internal developments in specific word-medial contexts. Voicing and Aspiration is a common feature of Pratapgarhi

2. Morphological - The Pratapgarhi verbal system is largely structured around a combination of aspect and tense/mood. Pratapgarhi has 3 aspects perfective, habitual, and progressive, each having overt morphological correlates. Compound formation and Person-Number-Gender Concord in Finite Verb are other special features of Pratapgarhi.

3. Syntactical – Pratapgarhi is an inflectional language of Subject-Object-Verb construction having close proximity with Hindi and Awadhi. Subject precedes the direct object of the sentence if both the dative and the accusative case marks the objects of a sentence. Attributive adjectives precede the noun they qualify by default, but can also be placed after the noun and Negative markers (*nahī*, *na*, *mat*) and interrogatives precede the verb by default but can also appear after it.

So this mother tongue may be identified as a sub-dialect of Hindi language with some influence of Awadhi language.

7. TEXT

/do dost əur ek bʰalu/
Two friends and a bear

Two friends, Ramu and Shyam walked through a forest. They
/dono dost ram ɔur sam dʒat se dʒəŋgəle o səb

promised each other that
wada kiye ek dusre se ke

they would remain united in case of any danger. Once
o səb raha səŋe səŋe keono bʰi kʰətra ekdin

they were walking through a forest. A bear came on their
o səb dʒat rəhen ek dʒəŋgəle se ekʰ bʰalu aye on ke

way. Ramu climbed a tree. Shyam did not know how
samne se ramu ʃəre gəyen peɾe pe sam ke nai awət rahas

to climb a tree. He told his friend, “I do not know
peɾe ʃəreɾet o bolen apne mitrə se hamka nai awət

how to climb a tree, please help me.” But Ramu
peɾep ʃəreɾi kirpa həmar mədət kəra pər ramu

did not respond. In fear and grief, Shyam lay down
kəno dʒəbab nai dihen dukʰi ɔur mayus ho kər syam leɟ gihen

on the ground breathless.
dʒəmin pər sas rokke

The bear came near the man lying on the ground.
bʰalu wahas pəhuɟ giye unkəre ləge gəye dʒəmin pe leɟe hua

It smelt in his ears, and slowly left the place,
unka suŋgʰe gəya wohi ʃʰoɾ ke ʃəla gəya

because bears do not touch dead creatures. After the bear
nate bʰalu nai ʃʰuyetʰən mər dʒanwər
left, Ramu came down from the tree and asked his

ram d̥əldi se niʃe ayen peɾ se ɔʊr puʃʰen

friend Shyam, " Friend, what did the bear tell you

dost syam dost həmar ka o bʰalu bolese

into your ears?" Shyam replied, "The bear advised me

tohre kane me sam bolen u bʰalu bolese həmse

not to trust a friend who leaves you in times of trouble

 biswas mət kəra d̥ʒo tohka əkele ʃʰoɾ ke ʃʰəla d̥ʒaye musibət pe

 to save himself." Saying this Shyam walked in own way,

bəʃʃiyəb kʰudəi itna kəike syam ʃʰəla gəyen əkele

 leaving

Ramu alone in the forest.

ʃʰoɾ ke ram ke əkele d̥ʒəŋgəle

/ram ɔʊr sam dono dost rəhen o d̥ʒəŋgəle se d̥ʒat rəhen o səb ek dusre se wada kiye rəhen ke
həm ʃʰahe keono bʰi kʰətra me səŋe səŋe raha ekdin o səb ek d̥ʒəŋgəle se d̥ʒat rəhen samne se
ekʰ bʰalu aye bʰalu ko dekʰ ke duno dost bəhūt d̥ʒəre gəhen ramu d̥ʒək nate peɾe pe ʃʰəre gəyen
sam ke peɾe ʃʰəret nai awət rahas o apne mitrə ramu se bolen hamka peɾep ʃʰəɾəi nai awət kirpa
həmar mədət kəra pər ramu kono d̥ʒəbab nai dihen dukʰi ɔʊr mayus ho kər syam d̥ʒəmin pər
apən sas rokke leɾ gihen iyehi me bʰalu wahas pəhuʃ giye d̥ʒəmin pe leɾe hua sam ke dekʰ ke
unkəre ləge gəye ɔʊr unka suŋgʰe gəya kuʃʰ der suŋgʰek bad sam ke wəhī ʃʰoɾ ke ʃʰəla gəya
peɾ pe bəiʃʰen ram soʃʰən bʰalu sam se kuʃʰ bolke gəya o d̥ʒəldi se niʃe ayen ɔʊr sam se puʃʰen
dost həmar o bʰalu tohre kane me ka bolese sam d̥ʒəmin se uʃʰin ɔʊr bolen u bʰalu həmse bolese
ki d̥ʒʰutʰa ɔʊr swartʰi logən ke bati pe biswas mət kəra d̥ʒo tohka musibət pe əkele ʃʰoɾ ke ʃʰəla
d̥ʒaye itna kəike syam wəhi se əkele ʃʰəla gəyen/

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1. INTRODUCTION

Rathori is a mother tongue, used amongst a small number of speakers found in Uttar Pradesh and Gujarat states of India. The term ‘Rathori’ comes from the term Rathor. Rathors were people who came from Rajasthan to Uttar Pradesh to establish their business and Rathori is the language used majorly by them. Majority of the population of Rathori community are multi-lingual because of language contact with other communities, especially Sindhi Community. No published literature is available and script of Rathori language is not known.

1.1. Family Affiliation

This language belongs to Indo-Aryan family of languages. It has close affinity with Hindi, Sindhi and other major Indo-Aryan Languages.

- Indo-European
 - Indo-Iranian
 - Indo-Aryan
 - Central Zone
 - Western Hindi
 - Rathori

1.2. Location

The field data for Rathori for the project of Linguistic Survey of India, Uttar Pradesh was collected from Hamirpur, of Uttar Pradesh in December, 2021. The data has been collected from a female informant named Mrs Rajni Shukla, age is 35 years, and verified by a male informant, named Mr. Vijay Suraha, age is 40 years. Both are residents of Kharela Taluk of Mahoba district, Hamirpur. Name of interpreter is Mr. Satish Kumar, age 40, residing at Khanna taluk of Mahoba district.

1.3. Bilingualism

Bilingualism (multilingualism) refers to the coexistence of more than one language system within an individual, as contrasted to monolingualism. Bilingualism is a product of extensive language contact. Most of the people in India are bilinguals. Similarly, Rathori people are also bilingual since very longer period of time. They mainly communicate in Hindi within their group. However, the younger generation also uses English language in their day to day communication with each other. This community also understand and responses in Sindhi language when they deal with business.

1.4. Sociolinguistic Information

Language use in different domains-

- a) **Home** - Rathori is predominantly used in home domain. Speakers use it to communicate with their family members including kith and kin both inside and outside of their home.
- b) **School** – Rathori is not used as a medium of instruction at any level of education.
- c) **Mass Media** – Rathori has no presentation in mass media.
- d) **Administration & Judiciary** - In Administration and Judiciary local only Hindi is found to be used.
- e) **Script** – Rathori is written using ‘Devnagari’ script.

1.5. Review of earlier literature

Rathori has no standard form and they also have no written literature. Elder generations of this community use some oral fables and moral stories for younger generations. As per the information from the informants, now a days this community has started publishing one half yearly magazine which presents matrimonial advertisement, small poems and songs regarding marriage ceremony, small story etc They use Devanagari script for their writing purpose.

1.6. Basis of the present analysis

The present study is an attempt to present the detailed phonological, morphological and syntactic features of Rathori language based on the field data collected from Hamirpur district in Uttar Pradesh, from informant namely Smt Rajni Shukla (Female -50). The same is validated with the data collected during Mother Tongue Survey of India (MTSI) project. Four samples which are categorized on the basis of informant’s place, gender and age, have been collected in audio-visual mode and are given to different scholars from various universities of India to write an analytical report on each of the particular variable. The informants were, Smt Premvati, (Female +50), Smt Laxmi Devi (Female -50), Sri Ramswaroop Lodhi (Male +50) and Sri Jaydev (Male -50).

The details of the scholars along with the names of the variables for which they have written the analytical reports are Raghawandra Singh Rajpoot, Tultul Talukdar, Jhuma Ghosh and Pritha Banerjee.

All these four analyses of Rathori have been consolidated by Prof. M.K. Koul of Central Institute for Indian Languages. The findings of the consolidated report have been incorporated in the report.

2. PHONOLOGY

Phonology is the study of how sounds are organized and used in natural languages. The phonological system of a language includes an inventory of sounds and their features and rules which specify how sounds interact with each other. Phonemic analysis helps in allotting all the indefinite number of sounds occurring in utterances to a definite and limited set of phonemes contrastive in at least some environment.

The Phonological system of Rathori is presented below based on the data collected from the informants of Hamirpur district of Uttar Pradesh during the field investigation.

2.1. Phonemic Inventory

Part of the phonological study of a language involves looking at data (phonetic transcriptions of the speech of native speakers) and trying to deduce what the underlying phonemes are and what the sound inventory of the language is. Thus, the phonemic inventory of Rathori shows the distinctive sound units occurring in Rathori speech.

Both the segmental and suprasegmental phonemes of Rathori are presented in the following inventory:

2.1.1. Segmental Phonemes

The segmental phonemes of Rathori comprise of 8 vowels and 32 Consonants. These are illustrated below:

a) Vowels: Vowels [-Consonant, +Syllabic, +Sonarant] refer to those speech sounds which are articulated without perceptible obstruction in oral cavity. There are altogether eight vowel phonemes (including 1 optional vowel phoneme which i.e. /ɛ/ having limited occurrence). All front vowels are unrounded and back vowels are rounded.

	FRONT	CENTRAL	BACK
CLOSE	/i/		/u/
CLOSE MID	/e/		/o/
MID		/ə/	/ɔ/
OPEN MID	/ɛ/		
NEAR OPEN	/æ/		
OPEN	/a/		

Distribution of Vowels short Vowels

Vowel		Initial		Medial		Final
/i/	/ik/	‘one’	/pila/	‘yellow’	/maʃi/	‘clay’
/e/	/eʃi/	‘heel’	/kela/	‘banana’	/pone/	‘three fourth’
/ɛ/	/ɛsa/	‘so’	/paɸɛʃ/	‘papad’	/niʃɛ/	‘low’
/æ/	/æna/	‘mirror’	/gæhene/	‘ornaments’	-----	
/a/	/agi/	‘fire’	/maʃi/	‘clay’	/dila/	‘rock’
/ə/	/əpman/	‘wife’	/nədi/	‘river’	/taʃə/	‘lock’
/u/	/unais/	‘nineteen’	/pʰul/	‘flower’	/təmbu/	‘tent’
/o/	/osana/	‘to winnow’	/moti/	‘pearl’	/pʰulo/	‘swelling’
/ɔ/	/ɔɾət/	‘insult’	/mɔʃi/	‘girl’	/maʃɔ/	‘forehead’

b) Consonants

Consonants [+Consonantal, -Vocalic] refer to those speech sounds which are articulated with perceptible obstruction in oral cavity. There are altogether 32 consonants, 10 out of them are aspirated. All aspirates tend to be non-aspirates in rapid speech.

			Bilabial	Labio-Dental	Dental	Alveolar			Retroflex	Velar
						Central	Lateral	Palatal		
Plosive	Vl	unasp	/p/		/t/			/tʃ/	/t/	/k/
		asp	/pʰ/		/tʰ/			/tʃʰ/	/tʰ/	/kʰ/
	Vd		/b/		/d/			/dʒ/	/d/	/g/
			/bʰ/		/dʰ/			/dʒʰ/	/dʰ/	/gʰ/
Affricate	Vl									
	Vd									
Fricative	Vl					/s/		/ʃ/		/h/
	Vd									
Nasal			/m/			/n/		/ɲ/		/ŋ/
Liquid								/l/		
Tap/Flap						/ɾ/			/ɽ/	
semivowel				/v/				/y/		

Distribution of Consonants:

Consonant	Initial		Medial		Final	
t						
/p/	/p ^h ul/	‘flower’	/bədʒpən/	‘childhood’	/sa:p/	‘snake’
/p ^h /	/p ^h ūkna/	‘to blow’	/sap ^h a/	‘clean’	/bərəp ^h /	‘ice’
/b/	/bərəp ^h /	‘ice’	/təmbu/	‘tent’	/dʒib/	‘tongue’
/b ^h /	/b ^h əia/	‘brother’	/səhanb ^h uti/	‘sympathy’	/dʒibh/	‘tongue’
/t/	/ta:r/	‘wire’	/bəsta/	‘bag’	/ta:p/	‘hot’
/t ^h /	/t ^h ūkna/	‘to spit’	/hat ^h ear/	‘weapon’	/dʒeɪt ^h /	‘husband’s brother’
/d/	/didi/	‘elder sister’	/vedɪ/	‘alter’	/asɪrvad/	‘blessing’
/d ^h /	/d ^h a:n/	‘paddy’	/rədʒnɪgənd ^h a /	‘tube rose’	/dud ^h /	‘milk’
/t̪/	/t̪opi/	‘cap’	/mat̪i/	‘clay’	/ko:t̪/	‘coat’
/t̪ ^h /	/t̪ ^h ōɽi/	‘chin’	/mut̪t̪hi/	‘waist’	/dʒe:t̪ ^h /	‘husband’s elder brother’
/d̪/	/d̪ila/	‘rock’	/lond̪a/	‘boy’	/dənd̪/	‘punishment’
/d̪ ^h /	/d̪ ^h o:l/	‘drum’	/gad̪d̪ ^h a/	‘hole’	/gid ^h /	‘vulture’
/k/	/kela/	‘banana’	/lɛɾki/	‘daughter’	/na:k/	‘nose’
/k ^h /	/k ^h ana/	‘food’	/bɔk ^h ɾa	‘male goat’	/ra:k ^h /	‘ash’
/g/	/gop ^h a/	‘cave’	/agi/	‘fire’	/b ^h ag/	‘division’
/g ^h /	/g ^h oɾa/	‘horse’	/g ^h oŋg ^h a/	‘snail’	/ba:g ^h /	‘tiger’
/ʃ/	/ʃəmməɽ /	‘spoon’	/hit̪ki/	‘hiccup’	/ʃəmməɽ /	‘spoon’
/ʃ ^h /	/ʃ ^h ike/	‘sneeze’	/bət̪ ^h ɛɾa/	‘calf’	/pũʃ ^h /	‘tail’
/dʒ/	/dʒəl/	‘water’	/rədʒnɪgənd ^h /	‘tube rose’	/ro:dʒ/	‘daily’
/dʒ ^h /	/dʒ ^h at̪/	‘bush’	/dʒ ^h əndʒ ^h ət̪/	‘problem’	-----	
/s/	/siŋ/	‘horn’	/usra/	‘desert’	/dəs/	‘ten’
/ʃ/	/ʃənkə /	‘doubt’	/koʃt̪/	‘skin disease’	-----	
/h/	/har/	‘necklace’	/biɾha/	‘forest’	/de:h/	‘body’
/m/	/məna/	‘death’	/bimar/	‘ill’	/məlhəm/	‘ointment’
/n/	/no:n/	‘salt’	/məna/	‘death’	/no:n/	‘salt’
/ŋ/	-----		/puŋma/	‘full moon’	/guŋ/	‘virtue’
/ŋ/	-----		/raŋga/	‘tin’	/siŋ/	‘horn’
/l/	/lal/	‘red’	/kela/	‘banana’	/pagəl/	‘mad’

/ɾ/	/ra:kʰ/	‘ash’	/ɖʒaro/	‘cold’	/bimar/	‘ill’
/ɽ/	/ɽā:ɽ/	‘widow’	/piɽa/	‘pain’	/peɽ/	‘tree’
/ʋ/	/ʋis/	‘poison’	/ɖʒivən/	‘life’	/perev/	‘anklet’
/y/	/yəmrəɖʒ/	‘God of death’	/dəya/	‘mercy’	-----	

2.1.2. Suprasegmental Phonemes

a) Vowel length:

Length is not phonemic here. Phonetically vowels are both short and long. In Rathori there are five long vowels and is tabulated in following table

	Front	Central	Back
Close	/i:/		/u:/
Close Mid	/e:/		/o:/
Mid			
Near Open			
Open	/a:/		

Distribution of the long vowel phonemes

VOWEL	Initial		Medial		Final	
/i:/	-----		/ɖʒʰi:l/	‘lake’	/gʰi:/	‘ghee’
/e:/	-----		/se:m/	‘beans’	----	
/a:/	/a:m/	‘mango’	/ta:r/	‘wire’	-----	
/u:/	-----		/su:r/	‘tune’	/mu:/	‘face’
/o:/	-----		/ɖʒo:r/	‘joint’	-----	

b) Nasalization

Nasalization is a way of pronouncing sounds characterized by resonance produced through the nose in course of which the velum is lowered, so that some air escapes through the nose during the production of the sound by the mouth. Nasalization in Rathori may be set up as a suprasegmental phoneme occurring with the vowels. For example

/ĩ/	-	/pʰunsĩ/	‘pimple’
/ẽ/	-	/pəẽtes/	‘thirty-five’

/ã/	-	/ʃʰãtdeo/	‘to trim’
/ã:/	-	/sã:p/	‘snake’
/õ/	-	/ʃʰæɾõ/	‘shade’
/õ:/	-	/õ:t/	‘lip’
/ũ/	-	/dʒũa/	‘louse’
/ũ:/	-	/ũ:t/	‘camel’

2.2 Phonemic Contrast

A phoneme is the smallest contrastive unit in the sound system of a language. A study of minimal pairs in the data exemplifies the phonemic contrast available in the dialect. These are used to demonstrate that two phones constitute two separate phonemes in the language. Examples of phonemic contrasts in Rathori are as follows

Vowels:

/e:/ ~ /i:/	/pe:t/	‘belly’	~	/pi:tʰ/	‘back’
/u/ ~ /a:/	/gun/	‘virtue’ ~		/gan/	‘song’
/e/ ~ /ə/	/des/	‘country’	~	/dəs/	‘ten’
/a:/ ~ /e:/	/ta:l/	‘tune’	~	/te:l/	‘oil’
/a:/ ~ /ũ/	/a:t/	‘eight’	~	/ũ:t/	‘camel’
/a/ ~ /ə/	/dʰan/	‘paddy’	~	/dʰən/	‘wealth’
/u/ ~ /ə/	/pʰul/	‘flower’	~	/pʰəl/	‘fruit’
/e/ ~ /a/	/kela/	‘banana’	~	/kala/	‘black’
/i:/ ~ /a:/	/bi:dʒ/	‘seed’	~	/ba:dʒ/	‘hawk’
/e/ ~ /ə/	/des/	‘country’	~	/dəs/	‘ten’
/a:/ ~ /o:/	/sa:k/	‘doubt’ ~		/so:kʰ/	‘happiness’
/e/ ~ /õ/	/gae/	‘cow’	~	/gaõ/	‘village’

Consonants

/d/ ~ /d/	/dena/	‘to give’	~	/dena/	‘feather’
/s/ ~ /l/	/sã:s/	‘breath’	~	/la:s/	‘dead body’
/n/ ~ /m/	/kan/	‘ear’	~	/kam/	‘work’
/d/ ~ /bʰ/	/du:kʰ/	‘grief’	~	/bʰu:k/	‘hunger’
/ɽ/ ~ /l/	/piɽa/	‘pain’	~	/pila/	‘yellow’
/ɽ/ ~ /n/	/ra:kʰ/	‘ash’	~	/na:k/	‘nose’
/dʒ/ ~ /d/	/dʒaɾo/	‘cold’	~	/daɾo/	‘to do’

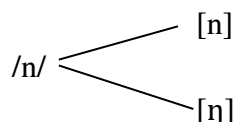
/b/ ~ /k/	/baɽ/	‘flood’	~	/kaɽ/	‘car’
/g/ ~ /s/	/gola/	‘road’	~	/sola/	‘sixteen’
/n/ ~ /ɖ/	/nila/	‘blue’	~	/ɖila/	‘rock’
/m/ ~ /ɖʱ/	/mi:l/	‘like’	~	/ɖʱi:l/	‘lake’
/t/ ~ /s/	/tare/	‘planet’	~	/sare/	‘all’
/t/ ~ /b/	/tara/	‘star’	~	/bara/	‘twelve’
/m/ ~ /d/	/mai/	‘mother’	~	/dai/	‘grandmother’
/n/ ~ /m/	/ka:n/	‘ear’	~	/ka:m/	‘work’
/m/ ~ /gʱ/	/maɽi/	‘clay’	~	/gʱaɽi/	‘neck’
/b/ ~ /p/	/beɽ/	‘berry’	~	/peɽ/	‘tree’
/s/ ~ /d/	/so:kʰ/	‘happiness’	~	/do:kʰ/	‘grief’
/s/ ~ /n/	/so/	‘hundred’	~	/no/	‘nine’

2.3. Major Allophonic Distribution

Allophones are condition specific (dependent) variants of a phoneme. Allophones of a phoneme occur in mutually exclusive environments. Allophones do not affect the functional identity of the phoneme in the language. Thus, it is a phonetic variant of a phoneme in a particular language. Although a phoneme’s allophones are all alternative pronunciations for a phoneme, the specific allophone selected in a given situation is often predictable.

The following allophonic variation is available in Rathori language.

- Phoneme /n/ has two allophones [n] and [ŋ].



[n] is an allophone of /n/ occur word initially medially and finally. For example,

/nə/	‘nine’ (word initial position)
/mərna/	‘death’ (word medial position)
/no:n/	‘salt’ (word final position)

[ŋ] is an allophone of /n/ when it occur before velar sound. For example,

/raŋga/	‘tin’ (before /g/)
/suŋgna/	‘to smell’ (before /g/)
/ɖʱəŋgʱa/	‘thigh’ (before /gʱ/)
/kəŋgʱa/	‘comb’ (before /gʱ/)

/atəŋkba:ɖ/ 'terrorism' (before /k/)

/kəŋka:l/ 'skeleton' (before /k/)

/pəŋk^hoɽi/ (before /k^h/)

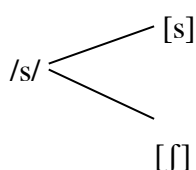
/səŋk^h/ 'conch' (before /k^h/)

In other cases it is realised as a phoneme. For example,

/siŋ/ 'horn'

/pətəŋ/ 'kite'

- Phoneme /s/ has two allophones [s] and [ʃ].



[s] is an allophone of /s/ occur word initially medially and finally. For example.

/siŋ/ 'horn' (word initial position)

/usra/ 'desert' (word medial position)

/dəs/ 'ten' (word final position).

[ʃ] is an allophone /s/ phoneme which occurs before retroflex sound. For example

/koʃt/ 'skin disease' (before retroflex /t/).

/nəʃt/ 'waste' (before retroflex /t/).

Retroflexization

Presence of retroflex sound is very much frequent in this language. Sometimes due to the influence of before or after retroflex sound in a word a sound become retroflex. For example, /nəʃt/ 'waste' (because of the influence of retroflex /t/ /s/ changes into /ʃ/).

2.4. Phonetic Inventory of Diphthongs

From quality point of view, vowel sounds are of two types: monophthong and diphthong. Monophthongs are pure vowels and diphthongs are gliding vowels. A vowel which does not change in quality may be called a monophthong and a vowel sound continually changing quality may be called a diphthong. Diphthong refers to the vowel where there is a single noticeable change in quality during a syllable. Somewhat depending upon the mood of

speaker it may be realized as either diphthong or vowel cluster. Examples of diphthongs from Rathori language are as follows:

/ia/	-	/dia/	‘lamp’
/ua/	-	/kuaɽõ/	‘bachelor’
/əi/	-	/b ^h əia/	‘brother’
/iu/	-	/p ^h iu:a/	‘father’s sister’
/ai/	-	/dai/	‘father’s mother’
/æ/	-	/tʃæ/	‘tea’
/au/	-	/kaua/	‘crow’
/oe/	-	/koel/	‘cuckoo’
/əu/	-	/məura/	‘peacock’
/eo/	-	/neo/	‘claw’
/ao/	-	/g ^h ao/	‘cheek’
/eã/	-	/baeã/	‘left’
/ei/	-	/məhamēi/	‘chicken pox’
/ea/	-	/beao/	‘marriage’
/ie/	-	/nariel/	‘coconut’
/ao/	-	/p ^h aoɽa/	‘spade’
/ui/	-	/nəɽ ^h unuia/	‘nose ring’
/oa/	-	/soap ^h a/	‘turban’

2.5. Consonant Clusters

A consonant cluster is a group of consonants (CC) which have no intervening vowel. The consonant clusters can be only that combination of consonants which come in a single syllable. It may occur at initial position (onset) as well as final position (Coda) of the syllable. Consonantal clusters are identified in Rathori. In this language the consonant clusters occur in the initial, medial and final positions of the word. Below is presented the cluster pattern with examples.

/tɽ/	/məntɽi/	‘minister’
/ɲg/	/raɲga/	‘tin’
/ɲk/	/nəuɽəɲki/	‘to drama’
/ɲg ^h /	/dʒəɲg ^h a/	‘thigh’
/ɲk ^h /	/səɲk ^h /	‘conch’
/ndʒ/	/məndʒdu:ɽ/	‘hawker’
/nd/	/sogəndit/	‘scent’
/nd ^h /	/rəɽɲigənd ^h /	‘tube rose (rajanigandha)’
/ndɽ/	dʒ ^h andɽa/	‘flag’
/nt/	/səntɽa/	‘orange’
/lk/	/palki/	‘palanquin’
/ɽt/	/nəɽt/	‘waste’

2.6. Syllable Structure

In this language monosyllabic, disyllabic, and polysyllabic words are found. Here words are formed following the syllabic patterns mentioned below:

1. Monosyllabic Pattern

- | | | |
|---------|----------|------------------|
| 1. VC: | /ũ: t/ | ‘camel |
| | v c | |
| | /i k/ | ‘one |
| | v c | |
| 2. CV: | /m u:/ | ‘face |
| | c v | |
| | /d u/ | ‘two |
| | c v | |
| 3. CVC: | /h a t/ | ‘hand |
| | c v c | |
| | /t e: l/ | ‘oil |
| | c v c | |
| 4. CVV: | /d a i/ | ‘father’s mother |
| | c v v | |
| | /g a e/ | ‘cow |
| | c v v | |

2. Disyllabic Pattern

- | | | |
|-----------|---------------------------|---------|
| 1) V-CV- | /a-----gi/ | ‘fire |
| | v cv | |
| 2) V-VC- | /o-----as/ | ‘fog’ |
| | v vc | |
| 3) VC-CV- | /an-----d ^{hi} / | ‘storm’ |
| | vc cv | |
| 4) V-CVC- | /a---kas/ | ‘sky |
| | v cvc | |
| 5) CV-CV- | /ta-----re/ | ‘planet |
| | cv cv | |

- 6) CV-CVC- /mæ-----dan/ 'ground'
cv cvc
- 7) CVC-C /dʒetʰ---dʒ/ 'husband's elder brother'
cvc c
- 8) V-CVC /i-----ladʒ/ 'treatment'
v cvc
- 9) CVC-CVC /pər-----vət/ 'mountain'
cvc cvc
- 10) CVC-CVV /nən-----deo/ 'husband's sister's husband'
cvc cvv

3. Polysyllabic Pattern

- 1) CVC-CCV-CV /pər----kri----ti/ 'nature'
cvc ccv cv
- 2) CCV-CV-CV-CV /prə-----ti----dʰo----ni/
cvc cv cv cv
- 3) CV-CV-CV-C /lə----kə---ʃi-----a/ 'wood'
cv cv cv v
- 4) CVC-CVV-CVC /ʃəm----goa----dər/ 'bat'
cvc cvc cvc
- 5) CV-CV-CVC -CV /mə-----dʰu-----mæk-----kʰi/ 'honey bee'
cv cv cvc cv
- 6) CVC-CV-CV /ʃʰup----ku----li/ 'lizard'
cvc cv cv
- 7) CV-CV-CVC /dʰa-----ma-----dʰol/ 'earthquake'
cv cv cvc

2.7. Gemination

Gemination refers to the occurrence of two same consonants at one place. In these cluster sound sequences does not differ in their place and manner of articulation. The following are the example of some geminated consonants:

/-kk-/	/sɛkkər/	‘sugar
/-tt-/	/lɒtta/	‘dress
/-tt-/	/kʰətt̪a/	‘sour
/-ll-/	/bɒlla/	‘bat
/-mm-/	/tʃəmmək/	‘magnet
/-nn-/	/unneasi/	‘seventy nine
/-dd-/	/hədd̪i/	‘bone’
/-ɟɟ-/	/ləɟɟet/	‘shame’
/-pp-/	/tʰappər/	‘slap’

3. MORPHOPHONEMICS

The alteration of morphemes when they occur with various kinds of affixes, phonological variations takes place. Morphophonemic deals with such phonological variations.

The Morphophonemic changes in Rathori are realised in the following ways.

i) Assimilation

Due to the influence of the adjacent sound one phoneme changes to the adjacent phoneme. For example

/raŋga/	‘tin’	(because of the influence of velar /g/ /n/ changes into /ŋ/)
/nəʃt/	‘waste’	(because of the influence of retroflex /t/ /s/ changes into /ʃ/).

ii) Alternation of Phoneme

Voiced unaspirated sound changes into voiceless unaspirated. Example from Rathori language is as follows

/gendɑ/ (Hindi) > /kændɑ/ 'rhinoceros' (Rathori)

iii) Metathesis

In metathesis two consecutive sounds switch places. Example from Rathori language is as follows,

/mrittu/ 'death'	>	/mirtu/	'death'
/prākṛiti/ 'nature' (Hindi)	>	/pərkṛiti/	'nature' (Rathori)

4. MORPHOLOGY

4.1. Word Formation Process

Rathori is an inflexional type of language. Words are formed by adding syllables or letters (i.e. affixes) or different postpositions to the stem and different endings are used to form different types of words and these affixes show no traceable signs of having been independent words. In Rathori, most of the words are monosyllabic in nature. There are a very few words which are non-derived polysyllabic words. This language uses two major devices to form words. They are – affixation and compounding. These are as follows:

4.1.1. Affixation

A large number of words in Rathori are being derived from other existing words by using prefixes and suffixes. Through affixation one can derive Nouns from nouns, Adjectives from Nouns, and Nouns from verbs and so on. The following word will exemplify affixation as a word formation process in Rathori.

The main morphological markers are:

a) Prefixes

/na-/ (negative marker) (Prefix)	+	/səməḍʰ/ (understand) (base)	>	/nasəməḍʰ/ ‘foolish’
/na-/ (negative marker) (Prefix)	+	/pəsənd/ (like) (base)	>	/napəsənd/ ‘to dislike’
/ən-/ (negative marker) (Prefix)	+	/ḍʒan/ (to know) (base)	>	/əḍʒan/ ‘unknown’
/ən-/ (negative marker) (Prefix)	+	/pəṭʰ/ (to read) (base)	>	/ənpəṭʰ/ ‘illiterate’

b) Suffixes

/rog/ (illness) (base)	+	/-i/ (-person marker) (suffix)	>	/rogi/ ‘ill person’
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/dʒog/	+	/-i/	>	/dʒogi/ ‘sage’
(to meditate)		(-person marker)		
(base)	+	(suffix)		

Similarly suffix /leo/, /-na/, /-deo/ is added to the noun base /naʃ/, /bun/ and /k^hol/ respectively to make in verbal base.

/naʃ/ ‘dance’	+	-leo	>	/naʃleo/ ‘to dance’
/bun/ ‘knit’	+	-na	>	/bunna/ ‘to knit’
/k ^h ol/ ‘open’	+	-deo	>	/k ^h oldeo/ ‘to open’

4.1.2. Reduplication

The word is also being formed by repetition of the identical form in some of the word in Rathori. The reduplication can be complete or partial.

Complete Reduplication	/barbar kərna/	‘to say repeatedly’
	/p ^h isp ^h isana/	‘to whisper’
Partial Reduplication	/səŋməɾməɾ/	‘mable’
	/luku p ^h uku/	‘hide and seek’

These are all examples of syllabic reduplication.

Sentence level reduplication is also possible in this language. For example,

/lal	lal	p ^h ul/	‘red flowers’	[sentence level reduplication]
red	red	flower		
/bəɽe	bəɽe	kitab/	‘big books	[sentence level reduplication]
big	big	books		

4.1.3. Compounding

As stated earlier, most of the polysyllabic words in this language are the result of compounding. For example,

/bap/ ‘father’	+	/matai/ ‘mother’	>	/bapmatai/ ‘parents
/g ^h oɽa/ ‘horse’	+	/gaɽi/ ‘coach’	>	/ɽaŋga/ ‘horse coach

4.1.4. Coining new words

In Rathori language many words are coning either from Sanskrit or from English. For example

/t̪əren gaɽi/	‘train’	(from English ‘train’).
/iskul/	‘school’	(from English ‘school’).

4.2. Word Class

4.2.1.Noun Morphology

Noun

a). Internal structure

Rathori is agglutinating language. The nouns in the language are marked by two numbers (singular and plural). Nouns thus realised in Rathori can be categorized into two broad classes, namely 1.Basic Nouns and 2. Derived nouns

a) Basic Nouns

Basic Nouns are those which are a class by itself as they are not derived from any other word class. The examples are

/pʰəl/	‘fruit
/kotta	‘dog
/ləndʱa/	‘boy

The basic nouns can further be divided into a) Mass nouns and b) Count nouns.

i) Mass nouns

Mass nouns are those which do not show number distribution and cannot be counted with cardinal numeral. They always occur in singular form. For example

/dʒəl/	‘water
/dudʰ/	‘milk
/kʰun/	‘blood
/te:l/	‘oil

ii) Count nouns

Count nouns are those which can take some suffixes for indicating plurality. Examples are

/p ^h əl/	‘fruit
/kotta	‘dog
/ləndə/	‘boy

b) Derived Nouns

In Rathori language some nouns are derived either from the verb or adjective or from another noun. The derived nouns are formed in two ways:

- i) By adding derivational suffix to other words;
- ii) By compounding words.

i) Derived nouns by adding derivational suffix

In Rathori some nouns can be derived from the verb or from any other noun by the addition of derivative suffixes. These are as follows:

1. Words are formed from verbal base to Noun (verbal Noun)

/dəur/	‘to run’	>	/dəurna/	‘running
/tæra/	‘to swim’	>	/tærna/	‘swimming

2. Noun + Noun forming suffix = Noun (Abstract Noun)

/bəf/	‘child’	+	/pən/	‘hood’	=	/bəfəpən/	‘childhood
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ii) Derived nouns by Compounding

A compound word is defined as the combination of two or more words to form a new word, for example,

/bap/	‘father’+	/matai/	‘mother’	>	/bapmatai/	‘parents
/g ^h oɾa/	‘horse’ +	/gaɾi/	‘coach’	>	/taŋga/	‘horse coach

b) External Structure

The Rathori nouns are inflected for Gender, Number, and Case. This language has two genders (i.e. masculine, feminine and neuter); and seven cases (nominative, accusative, dative, ablative, genitive, locative and instrumental). The following description gives the details of Rathori gender-number-case system.

i) Number

From the provided data it can be seen that there are two numbers in Rathori language: singular and plural. The singular has no particular distinguishing marker added. In case of plural formation, plural marker /-o/ is added to singular form in case of animate masculine and neuter gender and /-ia/ is added in case of feminine gender. But in case of inanimate noun plural marker is /-e/. E. g.

Animate:

Singular		Plural	
/ləɾka/	‘boy’	/ləɾko/	‘boys’
/moɾi/	‘girl’	/moɾia/	‘girls’
/bəɽʃa/	‘child’	/bəɽʃo/	‘children’

Inanimate:

Singular		Plural	
/gʰəɾ/	‘house’	/gʰəɾe/	‘houses’
/kitab/	‘book’	/kitabe/	‘books’

Some plurality is indicated by adding numerals to it. For example,

Singular		Plural	
/gʰəɾ/	‘house’	/do gʰəɾ/	‘two houses’
/ləɾka/	‘boy’	/ʃar ləɾki/	‘four boys’

In this case though numerals are added at the beginning of the word plural suffix is added at the end of the word.

ii) Gender

Rathori recognizes a primary gender division between masculine and feminine. Gender is natural, not grammatical. In this language gender differentiation is expressed in two ways, by using separate lexical items or by using different affixes. For example,

By adding affixes:

<i>Masculine</i>		<i>Feminine</i>	
/ləɾka/	‘boy’	/ləɾki/	‘girl’
/bətidʒa/	‘brother’s son’	/bətidʒi/	‘brother’s daughter’
/mɔsa/	‘mother’s sister’s husband’	/mɔsi/	‘mother’s sister’

/pota/ 'grandson'

/poti/ 'granddaughter'

By using two separate lexical item:

Masculine

/bap/ 'father'

/b^həiya/ 'brother'

/dai/ 'mother's father'

/t̪əɽgua/ 'widower'

Feminine

/mata/ 'mother'

/behən/ 'sister'

/mai/ 'mother's mother'

/t̪ã:t̪/ 'widow'

iii) Person

Persons are three- first, second, and third. In all the tenses and moods these categories are distinguished. They are also in different concordial relationship with the verb. Example,

/mæ dʒata hũ/ 'I go' (first person singular present tense marker is – hũ)

I go

/tum dʒate ho/ 'You go' (second person singular present tense marker is – ho)

you go

/ʋe dʒate he/ 'He goes' (third person singular present tense marker is – he).

he goes

Past tense form for √dʒa is 'gəye

/mæ gəye t^he / 'I went' (first person singular past tense marker is –t^he).

I went

/tum gəye t^he/ 'You went' (second person singular past tense marker is –t^he).

you went

/ʋe gəye t^he/ 'He went' (third person singular past tense marker is marker is –t^he).

he went

d) Cases

The case system of Rathori is similar to other Indo Aryan languages. Various suffixes are added to the noun stem to indicate different relationships between the noun and other constituents. The collected data shows that the Rathori Language has the following cases:

i) Nominative Case

The marker for nominative is /Ø/. For example:

/vəhə ek kitab pəṛta he/
He-nom a book read be-pr
'He reads a book.'

/gae dud^h deti he/
cow-nom milk give be-pr
'The cows give milk'

In the above examples /vəhə/ 'he' and /gae/ 'cow' are the subject and both are in nominative case and with it no case marker is added. So, the nominative case marker is zero.

ii) Accusative Case

Data shows that the accusative case marker is /Ø/ or /-ko/. Accusative case is used to indicate that noun is an object of the action of the verb. For example:

/vəhə ek kitab pəṛta he/
He a book-acc read be-pr
'He reads a book.'

/gae dud^h deti he/
cow milk-acc give be-pr
'The cows give milk.'

/və ʃəṛəiã ko marta he/
He bird-acc kill be-pr
'He kill the bird.'

iii) Dative Case

In Rathori language the dative case marker is /-e/. For example:

<i>/mere/</i>	'to me'
<i>/uske/</i>	'to him'
<i>/tumhare/</i>	'to you'

iv) Instrumental Case

The collected data shows that instrumental case marker is /-se/.

For example,

/mere kələm se lik^hie/
my pen-instr with write
'Write with my pen.'

/kulhaṛi-instr se peṛko kaṭa he/
axe with tree cut be-pr
'The tree is cut with axe.'

v) Ablative Case

In this language ablative case marker is /-se/.

/vəhə mere k^hiṛki se giṛgəya/
He my window-instr from fall down
'He fell down from my window.'

/peṛ se pəṭṭa giṛta he/
tree-intr from leave fall be-pr
'Leaves fall from the tree.'

vi) Genitive Case

Genitive case marker is /-re/ or /-ke/ etc. For example:

/hamare/ or */mere* 'my
/tumhare/ 'your'
/uske/ 'his'

vi) Locative Case

Locative case markers are /Ø/ and /-me/.

/mæ bəḍḍar dʒata hũ/
I market-loc go be-r
'I go to the market.'

/mæ gaō me rəheta hũ/
I village-loc in live be-pr
'I live in the village.'

,

4.2.2. Pronoun

Rathori has following types of pronouns:

Personal Pronoun

The personal pronoun system in Rathori distinguishes for two numbers and three persons.

	Singular	Plural
First Person	/mæ/ ‘I’	/həm/ ‘we’
Second Person	/tum/ ‘you’	/tum log/ ‘you’
Third Person	/o/ ‘he’	/ve log/ ‘they’

Demonstrative Pronoun

The demonstrative pronouns either of proximate or remote types is realized in two numbers that is singular and plural which are shown below.

	Proximate	Remote
Singular	/je/ ‘this’	/vəh/ ‘that’
Plural	/je səb/ ‘these’	/ve/ ‘those’

Interrogative Pronoun

An interrogative pronoun is a function word for the item interrupted in an information statement. Following examples are the interrogative pronouns in Rathori.

Interrogative Pronoun	Gloss
/kaj/	‘why’
/kisko/	‘whose’
/kəb/	‘when’
/kon sa/	‘which’

Indefinite Pronoun

An indefinite pronoun is a pronoun that refers to one or more unspecified beings, objects or places.

Indefinite Pronoun	Gloss
/səbhi/	‘everything’
/koi ni/	‘no one’
/kou bhi /	‘anybody’

/kou bhi /

‘anyone’

Reflexive Pronoun

A reflexive pronoun is a pronoun that is preceded by the noun, adjective, adverb or pronoun to which it refers within the same clause.

Reflexive Pronoun	Gloss
/khud/	“myself”
/ khud /	“yourself”
/ khud /	“himself”
/ khud /	“herself”

4.2.2. Verb Morphology

A verb denotes action. Different types of actions from the provided data are given below.

a) Physical Activity Verbs

List of different physical activity verb from the provided data is given below.

/dʒʰokna/	‘to bend’
/toɾna/	‘to break’
/bunna/	‘to knit’

b) Instrument Verbs

List of different instrument verb from the provided data is given below.

/baɽ kaɽvʌna/	‘to cut (hair)’
/daɽhi bʌnana/	‘to shave’
/kʰodna/	‘to dig up (root crops)’

c). Verbs of fighting

List of different verbs of fighting from the provided data is given below.

/ləɽai kəɽlna/	‘to attack’
/harana/	‘to defeat’
/maɽna/	‘to kill’

d) Music Verbs

List of different music verb from the provided data is given below.

/naɽna/	‘to dance’
/ganagana/	‘to sing’
/bəɽɽana/	‘to blow’

e) Motion verbs

List of different motion verb from the provided data is given below.

/ana/	‘to come
/dʒana/	‘to go
/tʃəɾna/	‘to climb

ii). Classification of Verb

The Rathori verb stems can be classified into simple and compound verbs.

a) Simple Verb

The verb is conjugated with aspect - gender – number – personal markers. The conjugational pattern of vowel ending and consonant ending verb roots are given below.

Present tense:

/mæ	dʒata hũ/	‘I go’ (first person singular present tense marker is – hũ)
I	go	
/tum	dʒate ho/	‘You go’ (second person singular present tense marker is – ho)
you	go	
/ʋe	dʒate he/	‘He goes’ (third person singular present tense marker is – he).
he	goes	

Past tense

Past tense form for √dʒa is ‘gəye

/mæ	gəye t ^{he} /	‘I went’ (first person singular past tense marker is –t ^{he}).
I	went	
/tum	gəye t ^{he} /	‘You went’ (second person singular past tense marker is –t ^{he}).
you	went	
/ʋe	gəye t ^{he} /	‘He went’ (third person singular past tense marker is marker is –t ^{he}).
he	went	

b) Compound Verb

A Compound verb consists of more than one root and may include one or more suffixes. For example

Compound Verbs with root are /-leo/, /-na/, /-deo/. Examples are as follows,

/naʃ/ ‘dance’	+	-leo	>	/naʃleo/	‘to dance’
/bun/ ‘knit’	+	-na	>	/bunna/	‘to knit’
/k ^h ol/ ‘open’	+	-deo	>	/k ^h oldeo/	‘to open’

and syntactic function the verb stems can be further divided into sub-classes. These are 1. Intransitive, 2. Auxiliary.

1. Intransitive: The verbs which do not take any object. Examples of Intransitive verbs are

/dʒana/	‘go’
/a:na/	‘come’
/b ^h ukna/	‘bark’ etc.

The examples of Intransitive verbal formation are:

/vehe	ata the/	‘he comes’
He	comes	
/mæ	dʒata hũ/	‘I go’
I	go	

2. Transitive: The verbs which take an object. The examples of transitive verbs are:

/k ^h ana/	‘to eat’
/dena/	‘to give’
/dek ^h na/	‘to see’

The examples of Transitive verbal formation are:

/mæ	roʃi	k ^h ata-hũ/	‘I eat bread’
I	bread	eat-1 st -pr	
/mæ	ʃəʔəiã	dek ^h ta-hũ/	‘I see the bird’
I	bird	see-1 st -pr	

ii) Finite verb formation

Having the verb roots as the base both Finite and Non-finite verbal formations are realised in Rathori. The components of finite verb are 1. Tense 2. Aspect and 3. Mood. In Rathori, finite verbs are formed by adding different suffixes to the verb root and different forms

are available for different person and tense. Different formations of the verb √ḍa ‘to go’ for three different persons and available tenses are given below.

a) Tense- Verbs in Rathori are morphologically marked for having three-way opposition of tense as

1. Present tense
2. Past tense
3. Future tense

Following are the person wise tense formations in Rathori.

i) Present Tense

In Rathori language, present indefinite verb root takes different suffixes for different persons. These are as follows:

	Singular	Plural
First Person	/-hũ/	/-he/
Second Person	/-ho/	/-ho/
Third Person	/-he/	/-he/

Examples are given below:

/mæ	ḍata hũ/	‘I go.’
I	go-1 st -sg be-pr	
/ham	ḍate he /	‘we go’
We	go-1 st -pl be-pr	
/tum	ḍate ho/ ‘	You go’
you	go-2 nd -sg be-pr	
/tum log	ḍate ho/	‘You (pl) go’
you (pl)	go-2 nd -pl be-pr	
/vəhə	ḍate he/	‘He goes’
he	goes 3 rd -sg be-pr	
/vəhə	ḍati he/	‘She goes’
she	goes 3 rd -sg be-pr	
/və log	ḍate he/	‘They go’
They	go-3 rd -pl be-pr	

ii) Past Tense

In Rathori language past tense form for √dʒa is 'gəye'. In this language present indefinite verb root takes different suffixes for different persons.

For example:

/mæ gəye t ^h e/ I went 1 st -sg be-pst	'I went'
/ham gəye t ^h e/ We go-pst-1 st -pl be-pst	'We went'
/tum gəye t ^h e/ you go-pst-2 nd -sg be-pst	'You went'
/tum log gəye t ^h e/ You (pl)go-pst-2 nd -pl be-pst	'You (pl) went'
/vəhə gəye t ^h e/ he go-pst-3 rd -sg be-pst	'He went'
/vəhə gəyi t ^h i/ s he go-pst-3 rd -sg be-pst	'She went'
/və log gəye t ^h e/ They go-pst-3 rd -pl be-pst	'They went'

iii) Future Tense

In Rathori language in case of present indefinite verb root takes different suffixes for different persons.

For example

/mæ dʒaɛŋ ge/ I go be-fut	'I will go'
/ham dʒaɛŋ ge/ We go be-fut	'We will go'

/tum dʒao ge/ You go be-fut	‘You will go’
/tum log dʒao ge/ You (pl) go be-fut	‘You (pl) will go’
/vəhə dʒaen ge/ He go be-fut	‘He will goes’
/vəhə dʒaen gi/ She go be-fut	‘She will goes’
/və log dʒaen ge/ They go be-fut	‘They will go’

iv) Present Perfect Continuous Tense

In Rathori, present perfect continuous verb root takes different suffixes for different persons. Examples are as follows:

/mæ dʒa rəha hũ/ I go be-1 st -sg-pr-cont	‘I have been going’
/ham dʒa rəhe he/ we go be-1 st -pl -pr-cont	‘We have been going’
/tum dʒa rəhe ho/ You go be-2 nd -sg-pr-cont	‘You have been going’
/tum log dʒa rəhe ho/ You (pl) go be-2 nd -pl-pr-cont	‘You (pl) have been going’
/vəhə dʒa rəhe he/ He go-pr be-3 rd -sg-pr-cont	‘He has been going’
/vəhə dʒa rəhi he/ She go be-3 rd -sg-pr-cont	‘She has been going’
/vəhə log dʒa rəhe he/ They go be-3 rd -pl-pr-cont	‘They have been going’

v) Past Perfect Continuous Tense

Past perfect continuous verb root takes different suffixes for different persons.

Examples are as follows:

/mæ dʒa rəha t ^h a/ I go be-1 st -sg-pst-cont	‘I had been going’
/ham dʒa rəhe t ^h e/ we go be-1 st -pl-pst-cont	‘we had been going’
/tʊm dʒa rəhe t ^h e/ You go be-2 nd -sg-pst-cont	‘You had been going’
/tʊm lɒg dʒa rəhe t ^h e/ You be-2 nd -pl-pst-cont	‘You (pl) had been going’
/vəhə dʒa rəhe t ^h e/ He go be-3 rd -sg-pst-cont	‘He had been going’
/vəhə dʒa rəhi t ^h i/ She go be-3 rd -sg-pst-cont	‘She had been going’
/vəhə lɒg dʒa rəhe t ^h e/ They go be-3 rd -pl-pst-cont	‘They had been going’

vi) Future Perfect Continuous Tense

Future perfect continuous verb root takes different suffixes for different persons.

Examples are as follows:

/mæ dʒata rəhʊŋga/ I go be-1 st -sg-fut-cont	‘I shall have been going’
/ham dʒate rəheŋge/ We go be-1 st -pl-fut-cont	‘we will have been going’
/tʊm dʒate rəhoge/ You go be-2 nd -sg-fut-cont	‘You will have been going’

/tum log dʒate rəhoge/ ‘You (pl) will have been going’
 You (pl) go be-2nd-pl-fut-cont

/vəhə dʒate rəheŋge/ ‘He will have been going’
 He go be-3rd-sg-fut-cont

/vəhə dʒati rəheŋgi/ ‘She will have been going’
 She go be-3rd-sg-fut-cont

/vəhə log dʒate rəheŋge/ ‘They will have been going’
 They go be-3rd-pl-fut-cont

B) Aspect

Aspect is related with duration, perfection, habituality etc. Rathori has mainly three types of aspects namely 1. Durative and 2. Perfective which are found to occur in different tenses and 3. Habitual aspect.

i). Durative or Imperfective Aspect

It describes an action which is regarded as continuous in the past or present or future tenses. Thus the structure of the finite verb with durative aspect is – verb stem - + durative (tense marker) + copula (person marker). For example,

a) Present Tense

In Rathori, present continuous verb root takes different suffixes for different persons. Examples are as follows:

/mæ dʒa rəha hū/ ‘I am going’
 I go-prog be-1stmasc-sg-pr

/ham dʒa rəha he/ ‘we are going’
 we go-prog be-1stmasc-pl-pr

/tum dʒa rəhe ho/ ‘You are going’
 You go-prog be-2nd masc-sg-pr

/tum log dʒa rəhe ho/ ‘You (pl) are going’
 You (pl)go-prog be-2ndmasc-pl-pr

/vəhə dʒa rəhe he/ ‘He is going’
 He go-prog be-3rd masc-sg-pr

/vəhə dʒa rəhi he/ ‘She is going’
 She go-prog be-3rdfem-sg-pr

/ve log dʒa rəhe he/ ‘They are going’
 They go-prog be-3rd-sg-pr

b) Past Tense

Past continuous verb root takes different suffixes for different persons.
 Examples are as follows:

/mæ dʒa rəhe t^he/ ‘I was going’
 I go-prog be-1stmasc-sg-pst

/ham dʒa rəha t^ha/ ‘we were going’
 We go-prog be-1stmasc-pl-pst

/tum dʒa rəhe t^he/ ‘You were going’
 You go-prog be-2ndmasc-sg-pst

/tum log dʒa rəha t^ha/ ‘You (pl) were going’
 You (pl) go-prog be-2nd masc-pl-pst

/vəhe dʒa rəhe t^he/ ‘He was going’
 He go-prog be-3rdmasc-sg-pst

/vəhe dʒa rəhi t^hi/ ‘She was going’
 She go-prog be-3rdfem-sg-pst

/vəhe log dʒa rəhe t^he/ ‘They was going’
 They go-prog be-3rdmasc-pl-pst

c) Future Tense

Future continuous verb root takes different suffixes for different persons.
 Examples are as follows:

/mæ dʒa rəhe hoŋge/ ‘I will be going’
 I go-prog be-1stmasc-sg-fut

/ham dʒə rəhe hoŋge/ ‘we will be going’
 we go-prog be-1stmasc-pl-fut

/tum dʒa rəhe hoŋge/ ‘You will be going’
 You go-prog be-2ndmasc-sg-fut

/tum log dʒa rəhe hoŋge/ ‘You (pl) will be going’
 You (pl) will be going

/vəhe dʒa rəhe hoŋge/ ‘He will be going’
 He will be going

/vəhe dʒa rəhe hoŋgi/ ‘She will be going’
 She will be going

/vəhe log dʒa rəhe hoŋge/ ‘They will be going’
 They will be going

ii) Perfective Aspect

It describes an action either completed in the past or to be completed in the past or to be completed. In the present it expresses the completion of an action which is just finished. In the past it expresses the action which is already done. The action to be completed in near future is expressed in future perfect. In Rathori language examples of perfective aspect is expressed by present, past and future perfect tense.

a) Present Tense

In Rathori language present perfect tense form for √dʒa is ‘gəya’ or ‘gəye’. In this language present indefinite verb root takes different suffixes for different persons. Examples are as follows:

/mæ gəya hũ/ ‘I have gone’
 I go-perf be-1stmasc-sg-pr

/ham gəye he/ ‘we have gone’
 we go-perf be-1stmasc-pl-pr

/tum gəye ho/ ‘You have gone’
 You go-perf be-2ndmasc-sg-pr

/vəhə gəyi he/ ‘She has gone’
 She go-perf be-3rdfem-sg-pr

/vəhə log gəye he/ ‘They have gone’
 They go-perf be-3rd-pl-pr

b) Past Tense

Past perfect tense form for √dʒa is ‘gəya’ or ‘gəye’. In this language past indefinite verb root takes different suffixes for different persons.

Examples are as follows:

/ham gəye hue t^{he}/ ‘We had gone’
 we go-perf be-1stmasc-sg-pst

/tum gəye hue t^{he}/ ‘You had gone’
 You go-perf be-2ndfem-sg-pst

/vəhə log gəye hue t^{he}/ ‘They had gone’
 They go-perf be-3rdmasc-sg-pst

c) Future Tense

In Rathori language past perfect tense form for √dʒa is ‘gəe’. In this language past indefinite verb root takes different suffixes for different persons. Examples are as follows:

/mæ dʒata rəhūŋga/ ‘I shall have gone’
 I go-perf be-1stmasc-sg-fut

/tum log dʒate rəhoge/ ‘You (pl) will have gone’
 You (pl) go-perf be-2ndmasc-pl-fut

/vəhə dʒati rəheŋgi/ ‘She will have gone’
 She go-perf be-3rd fem-sg-fut

C) Mood

Mood expresses the attitude of the speaker towards what he is saying in terms of the degree or kind of reality in terms of indicative, imperative, subjunctive, obligatory, dubitative, permissive of the propositional content of the sentence.

Indicative Mood

Most verbs we use are in indicative mood, which indicates something.

/ʃə meri kitab hæ/	‘Those are my books’
/jəh mera dost hæ/	‘This man is my friend’
/je səb mere ghər hæ/	‘These are my houses’
/ʃəh uska ʃəkku hæ/	‘That is his knife’

Imperative Mood

Some verbs are in the imperative mood, which express commands or request. Though it is not stated, the understood subject of imperative sentence is “You”.

/dhire se bolo/	‘speak slowly’
/ghəre ʃəle dʒao/	‘go home’
/bəʃh dʒao/	‘Sit down’
/je kitab pərho/	‘Read this book’
/ʃəbəl pe ʃhare ho dʒao/	‘Stand on the table’

Subjunctive Mood

When verbs show something contrary to the fact, they are in the subjunctive mood. It is used to express wishes, commands, emotions, possibility, judgment, necessity etc.

/əgər u mənəhət kərhe to səphəl ho dʒa hæ/	‘If he works hard he will succeed.’
/əgər rel der se aut hoti to həmu khe mil dʒati/	‘If the train is late, we may catch it.’
/əgər mə ʃhik rəhu to kal a dʒehu/	‘If I am well I will come tomorrow.’

Obligatory Mood

/tumhe do ʃhəija kela khao ʃhahije/	‘You should eat two bananas.’
/use ek kitab likhu ʃhahije/	‘He should write a book.’
/kəso na kəso toho ao ʃhahije/	‘Anyhow you must come.’

Dubitative Mood- Dubitative mood which expresses doubt or uncertainty on the part of the speaker.

/mə a səkət hu/	‘I may come.’
/vəh ʃhərəija khe mar səkət hæ/	‘He may kill the bird.’
/vəh əbhəu a səkət hæ/	‘He may still come.’

Permissive Mood- Permissive mood expresses permissions.

/tumme se kuʃh log dʒao ər le ao/	‘Let some of you go and fetch.’
/un səbkhe aen deho/	‘Let them all come.’

v) **Non-finite-** Non finite verb formation are as follows:

i) **Gerund-** A gerund is a verbal noun. Since it is a kind of noun, it may be the subject to some verb or the object to some verb. For example,

/tæɾna	soast ^h ke	lie	aʃʃ ^h a	hota he/	‘swimming is good for health
swimming	health	for	good	is	

Here words are formed from verbal base to Noun (verbal Noun)

/tæɾna/	’to swim’	>	/tæɾna/	‘swimming
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So here, /tæɾna/ ‘swimming’ are gerund and playing the role of the subject of the sentence.

ii) **Participles-** A participle is verbal adjective. It is so called because it is partly a verb and partly an adjective. For example

/giɾe hue	p ^h əlo/	‘fallen fruits
fallen	fruits	

/ʃəpĩ huĩ	ketabe/	‘printed books
printed	books	

Here forms like /giɾe hue/ ‘fallen and /ʃəpĩ huĩ/ ‘printed’ followed by the participle marker /hue/ or /-huĩ/ respectively (they are postpositions) which modify noun forms /p^həlo/ ‘fruits’ and /ketabe/. So here /giɾe hue/ and /ʃəpĩ huĩ/ are verbal adjectives i.e. participle.

4.2.3. Adjective- In this language adjectives occur before noun. For example:

/aʃʃ ^h a	bəʃʃa/	‘good child’
good	child	

/aʃʃ ^h i	moɾi/	‘good girl’
good	girl	

/aʃʃ ^h a	ləɾka/	‘good boy’
good	boy	

In this language adjectives do not changed according to the changing of gender. For example,

/aʃʃʰi good	lmoʃi/ girl	‘good girl’	(Feminine)
/aʃʃʰa good	ləʃka/ boy	‘good boy’	(Masculine)

Besides the above adjectival formation there are two grammatical classes of adjectives in this language, namely 1. Predicative Adjectives and 2. Derived adjectives which are discussed below.

1. Predicative Adjective

Adjectives in Rathori are found as used predicatively occurring before the verb substantives. In predicative use the adjectives follow the nouns in the sentences.

Examples

Non-predicative use

Predicative use

/bæheʃi deaf	moʃʃi/ girl	‘deaf girl’	>	/ʋəhə that	moʃi girl	bæheʃi deaf	he/ is	‘That girl is deaf’
/moʃa Fat	admia/ man	‘fat man’	>	/ohə That	admi man	moʃa fat	he/ is	‘That man is fat’

In the predicative use the adjectives form part of the verb phrase.

2. Derived Adjectives

In Rathori some adjectives are found to have derived from verb and hence these may be termed as derived adjectives. The formation is the following:

Verb Base followed by Participle marker is /-hue/ or /-huĩ/ + noun form.

Examples

/giʃe hue Fallen	pʰəlo/ fruits	‘fallen fruits’
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/ʃəpĩ huĩ	ketabe/	‘printed books’
printed	books	

Here forms like /giɾe hue/ ‘fallen and /ʃəpĩ huĩ/ ‘printed’ followed by the participle marker /hue/ or /-huĩ/ respectively (they are postpositions) which modify noun forms /pʰəlo/ ‘fruits’ and /ketabe/. So here /giɾe hue/ and /ʃəpĩ huĩ/ are verbal adjectives i.e. participle.

Further, semantically Rathori adjectives can be categorized into three, namely.

- i) Qualitative,
- ii) Quantitative and
- iii) Demonstrative adjective.

i) Qualitative Adjective

The adjectives which attribute a quality to the nouns are called qualitative adjectives. The examples are

/ʃʰoɾa	bəʃʃa/	‘small child
small	child	
/aʃʃhi	moɾi/	‘good girl’
good	girl	
/bəɾhia	ketab/	‘big book
big	book	

ii) Quantitative Adjective

The adjectives which refer to the quantity of the nouns with which they occur are called Quantitative adjectives. In Rathori the use of Quantitative adjectives are as follows

- i) When the numerical unit is followed by the relevant attributed nouns. For example,

/ik	kotta/	‘one dog’
One	dog	
/do	/belaia/	‘two cats’
Two	cats	
/do	ketab/	‘two books’
Two	books	

ii) When the quantity is in indefinite unit followed by the attributed nouns. For example,

/kuʃʰ	məʃʰli/	‘some fishes
some	fishes	

/tʰoʃasa	dʒəl/	‘some watar
some	water	

iii). Demonstrative Adjective

The forms which demonstrate the nouns are called Demonstrative adjectives which are realised in following way in Rathori language.

/e səb	hamare gʰəʃ he/	‘These are my houses
These my	houses	

/ʋəhe	uski	ʃaku	he/	‘That is his knife
That	his	knife	is	

In the above examples /gʰəʃ/ ‘houses’, /ʃaku/ ‘knife’, are demonstrated by /e səb/ ‘these’, /ʋəhe/ ‘that’ respectively and for this purpose here they are function as demonstrative adjectives only.

f) **Numerals-** Rathori exhibits numerals of both the Cardinal and the ordinal type:

Cardinal Numerals

/ik/	‘one’	/ʃʰə/	‘six
/do/	‘two’	/sat/	‘seven.
/tin/	‘three’	/a:ʃ/	‘eight
/ʃar/	‘four’	/nə/	‘nine
/pāʃ/	‘five’	/dəs/	‘ten

In the Rathori language it is found that from eleven onwards up to twenty it is found that the allomorphs of ten and twenty are added with the oblique bases of the cardinal from one to nine. Thus, the forms are –

/geara/	‘eleven’	/ekais/	‘twenty one’
/bara/	‘twelve	/bais/	‘thirty one’
/tera/	‘thirteen	/pāētes/	‘thirty five’
/ʃāuda/	‘fourteen	/unʃʰalis/	‘forty nine’
/pandra/	‘fifteen	/ektales/	‘forty one’
/solaha/	‘sixteen	/inʃkeavən/	‘fifty one’

/sətra/	‘seventeen	/ekhatər/	‘seventy five’
/aṭʰara/	‘eighteen	/pəʃātər/	‘seventy one
/unaɪs/	‘nineteen	/ɪŋkeanve/	‘ninety one’
/bis/	‘twenty’	/pənʃanve/	‘ninety five’

Ordinal Numerals

Ordinals are formed by using some different words. For example,

/pæhela/ ‘first’	/dusra/ ‘second’	/tisra/ ‘third
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Fractions: Fractions are formed by following ways, e.g.

/dɛɾ/	‘one and a half’
/səva/	‘one and a quarter’
/pao/	‘quarter’
/adʱa/	‘half’
/pəni/	‘three fourth’

4.2.4. Adverb

Adverb qualifies verb, adjectives and also an adverb. From the given data following example is collected,

/d ^h iɾese	bat kəro/		‘Speak slowly’
Slowly	speak		
/səbdo ko	aspəʃrupse	likk ^h o/	‘Write the words neatly’
Words neatly	write		

In the above sentences the adverbs are /dʱirese/ ‘slowly’ and /aspəʃ/ ‘neatly’

In this language adverbs occur before the verb. Here we have following three types of adverbs. These are: the place adverbials. For example

Adverb of Time

The time adverbials preceede the verb. For example

/kal/	‘tomorrow’
/bite kal/	‘yesterday’
/adʒ/	‘today’

Adverb of Place

Place adverbials also precede the verb. For example

/tum	iha	ao/	‘you (sg) come here’
You	here	come	

Here adverb of place is /iha/ ‘here

Adverb of Manner

Like all other adverbs this type also occurs before the verb. For example:

/d ^h irese/	‘slowly’
/dʒorse/	‘loudly’

Adverb of Direction and Measurement

In this language these are as follows:

/epar opar/	‘across’
/purəb/	‘east’
/du:r/	‘far’
/pa:s/	‘near’

5. SYNTAX

5.1. Word Order

In Rathori, the basic word order is of SOV (subject-object-verb) pattern, e.g.

/vəhə	ek	kitab	pəɾta he/	‘he reads a book
He	a	book	reads	
S		O	V	

/gae	dud ^h	deti he/	‘The cows give milk
cow	milk	gives	
S	O	V	

5.2. Description of the types of sentences

i) Simple Sentence

The simple sentence consists of a subject and a predicate. For example,

/vəhə	ek	kitab	pəɾta he/	‘He reads a book
He	a	book	reads	

/gae	dud ^h	deti he/	‘The cows give milk
cow	milk	gives	

The predicate may be a finite intransitive or transitive verb. The most common simple sentence, however, consists of a nominative subject and a finite verb as predicate. For example:

/mæ	iha	ata hũ/
I	here	come
‘I come here.’		

ii) Compound Sentence

A compound sentence consists of two or more simple sentences added with ‘and’, ‘but’ etc. In this mother tongue the example of compound sentence is:
For example:

/mere	b ^h əi	ər	bəhen	g ^h əɾme he/
My	brother	and	sister	are in the house
‘My brother and sister are in the house’				

In the above sentence two sentences are joined by the conjunction /ər/ ‘and’

iii) Complex Sentence

A sentence having one principal clause followed by one or more subordinate clause (s) is a complex sentence. For example:

/əgər ʃren derse ati to ham log pəkət səkte he/
If train late come then we my catch it
‘If the train is late we may catch it’

In the above sentence principal clause is /ham log pəkət səkte he/ ‘we may catch the train’ joined by the complex marker /to/ ‘then’ with the subordinate clause /əgər ʃren derse ati/ ‘If the train is late’

Similarly, /əgər mə ʃhik hũ to kal adʒaʊŋga/
If am well then tomorrow will come
‘If I am well I will come tomorrow’

Here principal clause /mə kal adʒaʊŋga/ ‘I will come tomorrow’ is joined by the complex marker /to/ ‘then’ with the subordinate clause /mə ʃhik hũ/ ‘I am well’

iv) Interrogative Sentence

In interrogative sentences there is no specific restricted place for the interrogative sense carrying terms. For example,

/apke batʃʃe kaha he/ ‘Where are your children?’
Your children where is

/ap kea kʰate he/ ‘What do you eat?’
you what eat

/vəhə kəʊn he/ ‘Who is he?’
He who is

Here, interrogative sense carrying terms are /kaha/ ‘where’, /kea/ ‘what’, /kəʊn/ ‘who’

v) Imperative Sentence

Imperative sentences denote sense ordering. For example:

/t ^h oɾasa	ɖʒəl	lao/	‘(you) Bring some water
Some	water	bring	

/e	kitab	pəɾho/	‘(you) Read this book’
This	book	read	

/bəiɾ ^h ɖʒa/	‘(you) Sit down’
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vi) Negative Sentence

In a SOV ordered sentence the negative element comes with the verb of the sentence. For example, negative marker /mət/ or /nəhi/ always comes with the verb.

/akiən ke	pa:s	mət ɖʒao/	‘Do not go near the fire
fire	near	not go	

/vəhə	ohə kam	nəhi kia/	‘He did not do the work
He	work	not do	

vii) Causative Sentence

The causative sentences are formed by suffixing causative marker to the verb which varies according to the person. In the collected data following forms are available for causative sense:

/mæ	admioko	həsata hũ/	‘I make the people laugh’
I	people	to laugh make	

/mæ	g ^h oɾeko	dəurata hũ/	‘I am making the horse run’
I	horse	making to run	

viii) Passive Sentence

A passive sentence is created from an active sentence by:

1. Subject changes into object.
2. Adding “by”.
3. Object changes to the subject.

4. Changing the verb form to its participle form.

In this language /vəhə/ 'he' is subject and in the passive sentence it becomes object and its form is /us/ 'him' which takes its postposition /se/ 'by' and the object of the active sentence /roʈi/ 'bread' comes to the subject's position. Verb √kha- becomes /kʰata he/ 'eats' (3rd person form) changes to its participial form /kʰalia he/ 'is eaten'. For example,

Active Voice: /vəhə roʈi kʰata he/ 'He eats bread'
He bread eats

Passive Voice: /roʈi us-se kʰalia he/ 'The bread is eaten by him'
Bread by him is eaten

5.3. Structure of Phrase

A phrase is a syntactic structure that consists of more than one word but lacks the subject-predicate organization of a clause. The phrasal sub-division in Rathori is as follows.

i) Noun Phrase

A noun phrase or nominal phrase, (NP) combines with other words in a noun phrase, optionally accompanied by modifiers like adjectives and intensifiers. From the provided data of the Rathori languages following examples of noun phrases are to be found:

/tum logo ke gʰəʈ/ 'Your (pl) house'
your (pl) house

/mera nam narayən he/ 'My name is Narayan'
my name Narayan is

Here, the subjects are nouns and these are combining with other nouns so that these are noun phrase.

ii) Adjectival Phrase

In an adjectival phrase, the adjective acts as the head of the phrase. An adjectival phrase consists of an adjective followed by a noun. Intensifiers or adverbs followed by adjective and noun, thereby making the structure more complex. Following example of noun phrase can be traced out from the provided data.

/tumhare do ketab/ 'Two books of yours'
of yours two books

iii) Adverbial Phrase

An adverb phrase has an adverb, sometimes with an adverb of degree.

/d ^h i:rese	bat kəro/	‘Speak slowly
Slowly	speak	

/səbdo ko	aspəst rupse	likk ^h o/	‘Write the words neatly
Words	neatly	write	

iv) Verb Phrase

A verb phrase (VP) is a phrase that has the syntactic role of a simple verb, and is composed of a main verb and auxiliary verbs or verbal particles related syntactically to the verb. In generative grammar, a verb phrase is a syntactic unit that corresponds to the predicate. In addition to the verb, this includes auxiliaries, objects, object complements and other constituents apart from the subject. These are inflected for person, number and gender. The predicate may be a finite intransitive or transitive verb. In Rathori language example of Verb Phrase is:

/surəðʒ	purəb se	nikəлта he/	‘The sun rises in the east
The sun	in the east	rises	

v) Prepositional Phrase

A postposition is an ad position that occurs after its complement. An ad positional phrase is a syntactic category that includes prepositional phrase (PP) and postpositional phrases (PSP).

/mæ	peɽke	niŋgəɽ	hũ/	‘I am near the tree’
I	tree	near	am	

/mæ	peɽse	du:r	hũ/	‘I am far from the tree’
I	tree	far	am	

vi. Passivization

Passivization indicates that the subject is the patient or recipient of the action denoted by the verb. A passive sentence is created from an active sentence by i) bringing object to the subject position ii) putting subject to the object position iii) adding ‘by’ iv) changing the verb form to its participle form.

Example –

- /vəhə ek kitab pəɾta he/ (Active)
he – PR_{/pro/} book read-PROGASP
‘He reads a book’
- /ketab uske duara pəɾa dʒarəha tʰa/ (Passive)
book – (n) him - PRP being – VBD read - SFP
‘The book was being read by him’
- /mæ roʃi kʰata hũ/ (Active)
I bread eat – SFP
‘I eat bread’
- /roʃe mere duara kʰa dʒa rəhihe/ (Passive)
bread me - NOM being - VBG eaten – VBN
‘Bread is being eaten by me’

vi. Negation

Negation is a morpho-syntactic operation in which a lexical item denies or inverts the meaning of another lexical item or construction. In an ordered sentence the negative element comes with the verb of the sentence.

Examples –

- /vəhə ohə kam nəhi kia//

he – PR_{/pro/} work – (n) did not – NEG
‘He did not do the work’
- /ehe əsəmbʰəb he/
It - PR_{/pro/} impossible – NEG

‘It is impossible’

vii. Causativization

The causative sentences are formed by suffixing causative marker to the verb which varies according to the person. Causative indicates that a subject cause someone or something else to do or be something.

Examples –

- /mæ g^hoŋeko dəurata hũ/
I – PR_{/pro/} horse – (n) run making - VBG
'I am making the horse run'

V. Structure of Clause

Relative clause

A relative clause is a kind of subordinate clause, one of whose arguments share a referent with a main clause element on which the subordinate clause is grammatically dependent. For example

/ie ohi kutta he dʒisne balək ko kaʃa t^ha/
DEM this dog that boy-ACC bit PRST DEM
'This is the dog that bit the boy.'

In the above sentence relative clause is /*dʒisne balək ko kaʃa t^ha/* 'that bit the boy

Correlative Clause

In this type of clause a paired conjunction (such as not only . . . but also, either...or, neither...nor) links balanced words, phrases, and clauses. The elements connected by correlative conjunctions are usually parallel, that is, similar in length and grammatical form. Each element is called conjoin.

/na və nahi mæ bəɖʒar gəye t^he/
neither he nor I field went
'Neither he nor I went to the field'

6. CONCLUSION

A close look at the grammatical description of Rathori shows that it is a non-literary variety, used only in social interactions, market places, or in-home domain and not for literacy, education and other official purposes. It is a scarcely used Mother tongue in Uttar Pradesh, almost on the verge of dying. Since the Census reports do not mention any thing about this MT we can presume that its speakers are not within the range of Census which means that it is facing threat. To prevent it from being lost some effort may be take and the Devanagari script system may be used for this Mother tongue to publish some local folk lore and religious stories, small story books for children etc so that the speakers of Rathori and others may know the mother tongue better and it is not lost in future. This would definitely pave the way for its preservation.

It can be concluded that Rathori is an inflectional language of Subject-Object-Verb construction having close proximity with Hindi and Sindhi. The phonological, morphological and syntactic analyses of Rathori reveal that this mother tongue has close affinity with neighboring languages like Hindi, Awadhi and Khari Boli. It shares basic grammatical features with Hindi language and 40% common vocabulary. It also shares common vocabulary with Sindhi and Rajasthani group of language. Morphologically this Mother tongue seems to have rich tense system. We have progressive, perfective, imperfective, etc. in all the three tenses. Aspectual and modal verbs are also very rich.

So, this mother tongue may be identified as a sub-dialect of Hindi language with some influence of Rajasthani language.

7. TEXT

Two friends and a Bear

Two friends, Ramu and Shyam walked through a forest. They promised each other that they would remain united in case of any danger. Once they were walking through a forest. A bear came on their way. Ramu climbed a tree. Shyam did not know how to climb a tree. He told his friend, "I do not know how to climb a tree, please help me." But Ramu did not respond. In fear and grief, Shyam lay down on the ground breathless.

The bear came near the man lying on the ground. It smelt in his ears, and slowly left the place, because bears do not touch dead creatures. After the bear left, Ramu came down from the tree and asked his friend Shyam, "Friend, what did the bear tell you into your ears?" Shyam replied, "The bear advised me not to trust a friend who leaves you in times of trouble to save himself." Saying this Shyam walked in own way, leaving Ramu alone in the forest.

/do	dost	əur	ek	b ^h alu/
Two	friends	and	a	bear

/ramu	əur	seamu	do	dost t ^h e/
Ramu	and	Shyam	two	were friends

/ve	ḍəṅgəlse	ḍa rəhet ^h e/
They	through forest	Went

/inone	ek dusrese	vada kiath ^a /
They	each other	promised

/ve	kisi	k ^h ətreṃe	sat ^h rəheṅge/
They	any	dangerremain	together

/ek din ve	dono	ḍəṅgəlse	ḍa rəhet ^h e/
One day	they	two	through forest went

/samnese	ek	b ^h alu	aya/
In front	one	bear	came

/b ^h aluko	dek ^h kər	dono	dost	bəhot	ḍəṭ gəye/
Bear	seeing	two	friend	very	become feared

/ramu dərke mare perpe fər gəya/
 Ramu in fear in the tree climbed up

/seamko perpər fərna nehi bənta tʰa/
 Shyam in the tree climbed not know

/ohə apne dost ramuko bola/
 He his friend Ram said

/modʒʰe perpər fərso nehi ata he/
 Me in the tree climbed not know

/kerpa meri mədət kərna he/
 Please me help do

/pər ramune koi dʒəbab nehi dia/
 But Ramu any answer did not give

/dukʰi əur mean həkər seam dʒəmin pər/
 Fear and grief Shyam in the ground

/apni sa:s rok kər leʃ gəya/
 His breath stopped lay down

/dʒəldi vəha bʰalu a pəhuʃā/
 Suddenly that bear came

/dʒəmin pər leʃe hue seamko dekʰ kər uske pas aya/
 In the ground lying Shyam seeing his near came

/əur use suŋne ləga/
 And him started smelling

/kuʃʰ deher suŋne ke bad vəhə seamko vohi fʰoʃ gəya/
 Some time smelt after it Shyam there left

/per pe bæeʃʰe hue ramuko ləga/
 In the tree sitting Shyam thought

/ki bʰalu seamko kanme kuʃʰu bolke gəya/
 That bear Shyam in the ear some said

/vəhə dʒəldise niʃe aya/
He quickly came down

/əur seamse puʃʰa/
And Shaym asked

/dost mere, vəhə bʰalu tumhare kanme kea bola/
Friend my that bear your ear what said

/seam dʒəminse uʃʰa əur ramuko bola/
Shaym from the ground raised and to Ram said

/o bʰalu mudʒʰe bola ki dʒʰuʃʰe əur soartʰi/
That bear me said that liar and selfish

/logā pət bʰərosa mət kəro/
People believe not do

/dʒo tumko musibətome əkela ʃʰoʃʰke ʃʰəla gəya/
Those you in the danger alone left went

/etna kəheke seam vəhase akela ʃʰəldia/
Saying this Shyam there alone went

/do dost əur ek bʰalu/

/ramu əur seamu do dost tʰe. ve dʒəŋgəlse dʒa rəhetʰe. inone ek dusrese vada kiathā, ve kisi kʰətrema sath rəheŋge. ek din ve dono dʒəŋgəlse dʒa rəhetʰe samnese ek bʰalu aya. bʰaluko dekʰkər dono dost bəhot dət gəye. ramu dətke mare pətpe ʃʰət gəya. seamko pətət ʃʰətna nehi bənta tʰa, ohə apne dost ramuko bola, modʒʰe pətət ʃʰəʃʰo nehi ata he kəʃʰpa meri mədət kərna he. pət ramune koi dʒəbab nehi dia. dukʰi əur mean hokər seam dʒəmin pət apni sa:s rok/

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1. INTRODUCTION

As languages are the true mediums of expression and communication, they play important role in the social fabric of its people. Presently Hindi is the main language of U.P. spoken by about 90% of population of this huge state of India. Other major languages spoken in U.P. are Awadhi, Bhojpuri, Braj Bhasha, Kannauji and Urdu. The study of Urtia mother tongue reveals that Urtia is a semi-nomadic class, so there is no fixed area for their residence.

1.1 Family Affiliation

As per recorded data the name of the language spoken in the district of Lucknow, for a small class of people Chinhata area and part of Sultanpur is called **Urtia**. It bears resemblances with Hindi and few resemblances with Urdu languages and some phonetic peculiarise. Hindi is the official language of Uttar Pradesh. English and Urdu are also used widely in administration. However, Urtia does not have any official status.

1.2 Location

The linguistic area of Urtia comprises of Lucknow, Chinhata area and parts of Sultanpur districts of Uttar Pradesh. Since they are the semi nomadic class, they have no fixed place of residence. Some people opine that these class may be called the Nat Community and of course they are the Muslim Nat Community. There are also Hindu Nat Community also. The word *nat* in Sanskrit means a dancer, and the Nat were traditionally entertainers and jugglers. Now they are engaged as auto drivers in Uttar Pradesh.

1.4 Bilingualism

Urtia is not used for inter-personal communication by the people. They use the state language or the standard prestigious language for communicating in public.

1.5 Socio linguistic Information –

The Urtia has no literatures, only Urdu and Hindi languages are used for this purpose. The script used here is Devanagari.

As per the present Survey conducted in Uttar Pradesh the following facts are revealed.

- Use of Urtia as L1 in the home domain - In the home domain Urtia is used as a mother tongue. The usage is restricted among the older people and it has started getting modifications (with the major language spoken in the respective states i.e. Urdu and Hindi among the younger generations).

- Urtia as L1 in other than home domain – Urdu and Hindi is used in the public places of the locality, judiciary and in the market.
- Use of Urtia in education- In schools Urdu and Hindi are used for education
- Use of Urtia in Mass Media - In different All India Radio stations and Doordarshan of Uttar Pradesh state used programmed version of Urdu and Hindi or presentation of programmes.

1.6 Review of Earlier literature available on the Language/Dialect Mother Tongues -

There is no literature regarding the language Urtia.

2. PHONOLOGY

Phonology is the study of phonemes and the structure of the phonetic segments in a language. On the basis of collected data the phonological structure of Urtia Language is given below.

2.1. Phonemic Inventory

2.1.1. Segmental Phonemes

Vowels

Vowel segmental phonemes of Urtia comprise of 8 vowels and 14 diphthongs.

	Front	Central	Back
High	i		u
Mid	e	ə	o
Mid low	æ		ɔ
Low		a	

Consonants

	Bilabial	Labio-dental	Dental	Alveolar	Post-alveolar	Retroflex	Palato-alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Plosive	p b p ^h b ^h		t d t ^h d ^h			ʈ ɖ ʈ ^h ɖ ^h			k g k ^h g ^h	
Nasal	m			n					ŋ	
Trill				r						
Tap						ɽ				
Fricative		f		s z	ʃ					h
Affricate							tʃ dʒ tʃ ^h dʒ ^h			
Approximant		ʋ						j		
Lateral approximant				l						

There are altogether 33 consonant phonemes.

Supra Segmental Phoneme

The supra segmental features include tones length and nasalization.

Nasalization:

Almost all vowels have nasalized counter parts. Nasalization is phonemic in Urtia Language i.e. presence of nasalization causes meaning difference. /a/~/ã/
/sas/ ‘mother-in-law’ ~ /sãs (lena)/ ‘to breath’

2.2 Distributions

Vowels

Vowel	Initial	Medial	Final
/i/	/imtehan/ ‘examination’ /imli/ ‘tamarind’	/nid/ ‘sleep’ /lipik/ ‘clerk’	/tulsi/ ‘tulsi’ /bərhai/ ‘carpenter’
/e/	/ekka/ ‘pony’ /eɾi/ ‘heel’	/seb/ ‘fruit’ /begəm/ ‘female’	/ekjanve/ ‘ninety one’ /pæhele/ ‘before’
/æ/	/æjsa/ ‘so’	/bæhinoi/ ‘elder/younger sister’s husband’ /dʒæher/ ‘venom’	*
/a/	/aɲul/ ‘finger’ /asha/ ‘hope’	/tərab/ ‘lake’ /pesab/ ‘urine’	/dʒəŋgʰa/ ‘thigh’ /paka/ ‘boil’
/ə/	/əspatal/ ‘hospital’ /əkʰbar/ ‘newspaper’	/ədrəkʰ/ ‘ginger’ /baluhər/ ‘desert’	*
/ɔ/	*	/sɔhal/ ‘husband’ /lɔŋ/ ‘clove’	*
/o/	/osara/ ‘verandah’ /odʒʰa/ ‘sorcerer’	/sohem/ ‘three’ /solah/ ‘sixteen’	/usko/ ‘to her’ /kʰudko/ ‘to me’
/u/	/ultʃi/ ‘diarrhoea’ /ukʰarna/ ‘to pull out’	/kəndmul/ ‘miser’ /purana/ ‘old’	/dəjalu/ ‘kind’ /mədʒru/ ‘mad’

Consonants

Consonant	Initial	Medial	Final
/p/	/pahar/ ‘hill’ /pani/ ‘water’	/kʰopri/ ‘skull’ /kʰəɽʃapən/ ‘acidity’	/sāp/ ‘snake’ /bʰap/ ‘steam’
/pʰ/	/pʰerivala/ ‘hawker’ /pʰorna/ ‘to break’	/galpʰəra/ ‘jaw’ /pʰepʰra/ ‘lung’	*
/b/	/bia/ ‘seed’ /babul/ ‘babool’	/mətləbi/ ‘health’ /motiabin/ ‘cataract’	/kitab/ ‘book’ /həm səb/ ‘our’

/b ^h /	/b ^h ãtʃa/ ‘brinjal’ /b ^h indʒi/ ‘lady’s finger’	/əb ^h ineta/ ‘actor’ /tɪrb ^h udʒ/ ‘triangle’	/dʒib ^h / ‘tongue’
/t/	/tər/ ‘then’ /təb tək/ ‘till’	/motiabin/ ‘cataract’ /əspatal/ ‘hospital’	/bərsat/ ‘rain’ /dost/ ‘friend’
/t ^h /	/t ^h ana/ ‘police station’ /t ^h əmna/ ‘to stay’	/nət ^h ni/ ‘nose-ring’ /met ^h i/ ‘methi’	/hat ^h / ‘ankle’ /lat ^h / ‘kick’
/d/	/dukanvala/ ‘shopkeeper’	/nədia/ ‘river’ /gərda/ ‘dust’	/dʒənpəd/ ‘district’ /sənsəd/ ‘nation’
/d ^h /	/d ^h ũa/ ‘smoke’ /d ^h an/ ‘paddy’	/pɒd ^h a/ ‘plant’ /ənd ^h a/ ‘blind’	/gend ^h / ‘ball’ /bad ^h / ‘flood’
/t/	/tək ləgana/ ‘to lean’ /tʃuia/ ‘worm’	/moʃa/ ‘fat’ /maʃi/ ‘clay’	/koʃ/ ‘coat’ /ləŋgoʃ/ ‘loincloth’
/t ^h /	/t ^h əʃt ^h era/ ‘coppersmith’	/taʃ ^h i/ ‘plate’ /aŋuʃ ^h i/ ‘ring’	/seʃ ^h / ‘moneylender’ /pɪʃ ^h / ‘back’
/dʒ/	/dʒubna/ ‘to sink’ /dʒaʃna/ ‘to scold’	/k ^h andəher/ ‘cave’ /əndʒa/ ‘egg’	/hat ^h i ka dʒ ^h und/ ‘herd of elephants’
/dʒ ^h /	/dʒ ^h al/ ‘slope’ /dʒ ^h ækə/ ‘belch’	*	*
/k/	/kənd ^h a/ ‘shoulder’ /kəʃhiāo/ ‘waist’	/kəŋkal/ ‘skeleton’ /hiʃki/ ‘hiccough’	/ikbəjek/ ‘suddenly’ /nəzdik/ ‘near’
/k ^h /	/k ^h andəher/ ‘cave’ /k ^h ala/ ‘mother’s sister’	/rak ^h i/ ‘ash’ /ənək ^h ajel/ ‘spinster’	/āk ^h / ‘eye’ /ədrək ^h / ‘ginger’
/g/	/gaj ka gost/ ‘beef’ /gəmla/ ‘cooking pot’	/b ^h agana/ ‘to move’ /agrəhkərna/ ‘to insist’	/pətəŋg/ ‘kite’ /b ^h ag/ ‘division’
/g ^h /		/g ^h oŋg ^h a/ ‘snail’ /dʒəŋg ^h a/ ‘thigh’	*
/m/	/musibət/ ‘grief’ /məʃdʒur/ ‘labour’	/həmarə/ ‘my’ /tumahara/ ‘your’	/muldʒim/ ‘prisoner’ /doem/ ‘two’
/n/	/nala/ ‘brook’ /nati/ ‘daughter’s son’	/pani/ ‘water’ /banər/ ‘monkey’	/nak ^h un/ ‘claw’ /k ^h un/ ‘blood’
/ŋ/	*	/təŋari/ ‘axe’ /məheŋga/ ‘costly’	/siŋ/ ‘horn’ /hiŋ/ ‘asafoetida’
/f/	/falis/ ‘paralysis’ /foʃo/ ‘picture’	/səfed/ ‘leucoerma’ /kafi/ ‘coffee’	/təvaef/ ‘prostitute’ /təkliʃ/ ‘ache/pain’
/s/	/sitare/ ‘star’ /surəʃ/ ‘sun’	/kāsa/ ‘bronze’ /sisa/ ‘glass’	/sas/ ‘mother-inlaw’ /mus/ ‘mouse’
/z/	/zindəgi/ ‘life’	/izzət/ ‘pride’ /nəzdik/ ‘near’	*
/ʃ/	/ʃikakai tel/ ‘shikakai’ /ʃola/ ‘fire’	/rəʃni/ ‘light’ (by vision/ peʃab/ ‘urine’	/khərgoʃ/ ‘rabbit’ /bariʃ/ ‘rain’
/tʃ/	/tʃuia/ ‘chick’ /tʃəndrəma/ ‘moon’	/atʃar/ ‘pickle’ /natʃna/ ‘to sprinkle’	/tʃōʃ/ ‘beak’ /tʃəmməʃ/ ‘spoon’

/tʰ/	/tʰĩk/ ‘sneeze’ /tʰata/ ‘umbrella’	/lukatʰipi/ ‘hide and seek’ /mətʰri/ ‘fish’	/pũtʰ/ ‘tail’ /mutʰ/ ‘moustache’
/dʒ/	/dʒira/ ‘cuminseed’ /dʒəmin/ ‘land’	/midʒadʒ/ ‘temper’ /bʰoɔdʒai/ ‘brother’s wife’	/avadʒ/ ‘noise’ /kagədʒ/ ‘paper’
/dʒʰ/	/dʒʰumka/ ‘ear-ring’ /dʒʰopri/ ‘hut’	/budʒʰana/ ‘to extinguish’ /odʒʰa/ ‘sorcerer’	*
/h/	/har/ ‘garland’ /həvaha/ ‘farmer’	/pahar/ ‘hill’ /baluhər/ ‘desert’	/muh/ ‘mouth’ /gəvəh/ ‘witness’
/r/	/rəŋgməntʃ/ ‘stage’ /rat/ ‘night’	/dʒara/ ‘cold’ /sitare/ ‘star’	/baluhər/ ‘desert’ /kʰandəher/ ‘cave’
/t/	*	/bʰitʃna/ ‘to collide’ /bʰetʃi/ ‘sheep’	/kākət/ ‘pebble’ /dʒot/ ‘joint’
/l/	/ləkri/ ‘wood’ /lərka/ ‘boy’	/andʰela/ ‘darkness’ /nala/ ‘brook’	/səhal/ ‘husband’ /ənəkʰajel/ ‘spinster’
/j/	/judʰ kərna/ ‘to attack’ /jədi/ ‘if’	/dəjalu/ ‘kind’ /kja/ ‘what’	/gaj/ ‘cow’ /tʃaj/ ‘tea’
/v/	/vəlid/ ‘father’ /vəkil/ ‘advocate’	/həva/ ‘air’ /kuvāra/ ‘bachelor’	*

2.3 Major Allophonic Distributions

Any Consonant is checked in word finally and elsewhere they are regular. Let us take the example of /p/.

/sāp/	‘snake’	>	[sāp]	Word finally
/kʰopri/	‘skull’	>	[kʰopri]	Elsewhere

2.4 Vowel Glides or Diphthongs

A diphthong may be described as a vowel glide, i.e. the tongue first takes the position required for the articulation of a certain vowel and then moves (or glides) towards the position required for the articulation of another vowel. A vowel Glide, if it has to be called a diphthong, will have to occupy a single syllable. Urtia has 14 Diphthongs or Vowel glides. These are - /ia/, /ei/, /eo/, /ai/, /ae/, /ao/, /au/, /oe/, /ou/, /ui/, /ua/, /oi/, /ɔo/ and /eo/.

Distribution of Diphthongs

Diphthong	Initial	Medial	Final
/ia/	/iadkərna/ ‘toremember’	/hatʰiar/ ‘Weapon’	/guɾia/ ‘doll’
/ei/	*	/kəreila/ ‘bitter-gourd’	*
/eo/	*	/neor/ ‘mongoose’ /teohar/ ‘festival’	*

/ai/	*	/pæjdais/ ‘birth’	/golai/ ‘circle’
/ae/	*	/təvæf/ ‘prostitute’	*
/ao/	*	/bənaotʃi/ ‘false’	/kerao/ ‘pea’
/au/	*	/bauna/ ‘short’	/berkau/ ‘husband’s brother’
/oe/	*	/doem/ ‘two’	*
/ou/	*	*	/burhou/ ‘father-in-law’
/ui/	*	/tʃuia/ ‘chick’	/sui/ ‘needle’
/ua/	*	*	/dʒua/ ‘dice’ /gua/ ‘multiplication’
/oi/	*	*	/nəndoi/ ‘husband’s sister’s husband’
/ɔo/	/ɔr/ ‘and’	/dɔorna/ ‘to run’	/dʒɔo/ ‘barley’
/eo/	*	/neor/ ‘mongoose’	*

2.5 Consonant Cluster

Clusters of consonants occur in all the positions viz. Initial, Medial and Final. The frequency of clusters of consonants are more in the medial position than in the initial and final position. The term refers to a sequence of adjacent consonants in a syllable. As per the available data the consonant clusters of Urtia are as follows.

(i) Homogeneous Consonant Clusters

Homogeneous consonant clusters are formed by two identical phonemes.

Consonant Cluster	Initial	Medial	Final
/tt/	*	/pætta/ ‘leaf’ /ekhattər/ ‘seventy one’	*
/kk/	*	/sikka/ ‘coin’ /ekka/ ‘pony’	*
/mm/	*	/himmət/ ‘courage’ /himməti/ ‘brave’	*
/nn/	*	/pənnə/ ‘emerald’	*
/rr/	*	/bərre/ ‘wasp’	*
/ll/	*	/bəlla/ ‘bat’ /tʃillana/ ‘to scream’	*
/dʒdʒ/	*	/udʒdʒar/ ‘white’ /beidʒdʒəti/ ‘insult’	*
/zz/	*	/izzətər/ ‘virtue’ /izzət/ ‘pride’	*

/dd/	*	/ʃɔuhəddi/ 'border'	*
/ɖɖ/	*	/kəbəɖɖi/ 'kabaddi' /həɖɖi/ 'bone'	*

(ii) Heterogeneous Consonant Clusters

Heterogeneous consonant clusters are formed by two non-identical phonemes (differs in their place and manner of articulation).

Consonant Cluster	Initial	Medial	Final
/kr/	*	/ləkri/ 'wood'	*
/pr/	/prədes/ 'another place'	/ɖʒʰopri/ 'hut'	*
/br/	*	/kubri/ 'stick'	*
/nt/	*	*	/sant/ 'peaceful'
/ndʰ/	*	*	/gendʰ/ 'ball'
/st/	*	/radʒmistiri/ 'mason' /rasta/ 'road'	/dost/ 'friend' /gost/ 'flesh'

2.6. Syllable

The syllabic system in this dialect is of peak type. There are as many syllable in a word as there are syllable peaks. The syllable peak is necessarily formed by a vowel. It can be preceded by an onset and followed by a coda the onset is formed by a single consonant or a cluster of two consonants preceding the peak; while the coda is also formed by a single consonant or a cluster of two consonants following the peak. If the onset is a cluster, the coda cannot be a cluster and if the coda is a cluster the onset cannot be a cluster. The syllable boundaries can be predicted on the basis of peaks and selection of consonants as on set or coda. A word can be monosyllabic, disyllabic or polysyllabic. The syllable types are as follows: Syllable structure of Urtia is as follows:

Syllable	Syllable Structure	Words
Monosyllabic	[CV]	/ɔr/ 'others'
	[CVV]	/jao/ 'go'
	[CVC]	/kor/ 'leprosy'
Disyllabic	[CV-CV]	/gora/ 'fair'
	[CV-CVV]	/nodia/ 'river'
	[CV-CVC]	/valid/ 'father'
	[CVC-CVC]	/təklif/ 'pain'
	[CVC-CV]	/məɖgru/ 'mad'

	[CVC-CV]	/d ^h əkna/	‘lid’
Trisyllabic	[VC-CV-CV]	/and ^h ela/	‘darkness’
	[CV-CV-CV]	/məsala/	‘spice’
	[CVC-CV-CVV]	/gəosaria/	‘cowshed’
	[CV-CVC-CVC]	/səlahkar/	‘minister’
Tetrasyllabic	[CCVC-CV-CV-CV]	/g ^h ritkumari/	‘aloevera’
	[CV-CVC- CV- C VC]	/təzurbekar/	‘astrologer’
	[CV-CV-CV-CV]	/p ^h erivala/	‘hawker’
Pentasyllabic	[V-CV-CVC-CV-CV]	/əbdətk ^h ana/	‘worship room’

As it is observed in other Indo-Aryan languages, the tendency of pronouncing each and enemy words into two Mora / syllables also founding Urtia language. This is called Bi-morism. Therefore we can consider this as one of the characteristics to include Urtia As it is observed in other Indo-Aryan languages, the tendency of pronouncing each and enemy words into two Mora / syllables also founding Urtia language. This is called Bi-morism. Therefore we can consider this as one of the characteristics to include Urtia language into Indo-Aryan Group of Languages.

3. MORPHOPHONEMICS

When a stem is combined with a suffix or when two or more stems are combined with each other, there are often changes in the shape of the combined stem. Such types of changes take place within a word depend on the environment in which the occurrence takes place. These changes are either combined by the phonological environment, or morphological (applicable to a relatively smaller number of item). The morphophonemic process described here is mainly of the former type. Followings are the examples of the morphophonemic changes occurring in Urtia –

1. / h / is dropped from verb form to noun form

raho	‘to stay’	>	raotho	‘resident’
saha	‘to tolerate’	>	saotho	‘one who tolerate’

2. The final consonant germinates before a suffix added.

sacca	‘truth’	>	sacpan	‘about truth’
kacca	‘raw’	>	kacapan	‘about to ripe’

3. Vowel of the stem is charged or replaced when joining with another vowel.

ba:g	‘garden’	>	bəgi:ca	‘orchard’
likh	‘to write’	>	lekha	‘account’

4. MORPHOLOGY

The morphology can be divided into two parts – Noun morphology and verb morphology. The noun morphology includes – the descriptions of nouns along with their gender, number and cases. It also includes the morphology of Pronouns, Adjectives etc. The verb morphology includes the description of the finite and non-finite verbs along with the Tense, Aspect, Mood, Infinitives, Gerund, Participle, Causation, Passive Formation, Compound Verbs, Transitivity etc. as applicable to the verbs.

I. Noun Morphology

i. Word Formation Process:

i) Affixation

There are very few inflectional affixes in this language.

Suffixes: /-ō/, /-ē/, /-ā/ are plural markers which are acting as suffixes and are attached to the nouns to form their plural forms. For example

/ghər/ ‘house’ + /-ō/ > /ghərō/ ‘houses’

/kitab/ ‘book’ + /- ē/ > /kitabē/ ‘books’

Some plurals are formed by vowel change at word final position. For example,

/ghoṛa/ ‘horse’ > /ghoṛē/ ‘horses’

/bəṛṛfa/ ‘child’ > /bəṛṛfē/ ‘children’

ii) Compounding

Compounding involves joining of more than one stem either in free or bound form . For example,

/ni:lā/ ‘Blue’ + /kəmāl/ ‘lotus’ > /ni:l kəmāl/ ‘Blue lotus’

iii) Reduplication

Reduplication can be complete, partial or similar.

/ghar ghar me/ ‘every house’

/likhte likhte/ ‘writing while’

/dhire dhire/ ‘slowly’

/kabhi kabhi/ 'sometime'

Word Classes

The words available in this language are divided into following grammatical categories namely 1. Noun 2. Pronouns 3. Adjectives 4. Post-Positions 5. Conjunctions 6. Verbs and 7. Adverbs. These seven word classes are broadly grouped into two categories- Declinable and Indeclinable. Declinable are those, which are declined for numbers-genders-persons-cases etc., for example, nouns, pronouns, adjectives and verbs. And the post-positions, conjunctions, adverbs belong to the Indeclinable.

Nouns

Basic Nouns: Basic Nouns are a class by itself as they are not derived from any other word class. The examples are-

/phəl/ 'fruit'

/kutta/ 'dog'

Derived Nouns

In Urtia some nouns are derived either from the verb or adjective or from another noun. These are formed in the following two ways either by adding derivational suffixes or by Compounding:

i) Derived nouns from nouns

Here the derivational affix is/-bananevala/. After the addition of the affix the root is changed or modified in some way.

/miṭhai / 'sweetmeat' > /miṭhaibananevala/ 'sweetmeat maker'

/sona/ 'gold' > /sonabananevala/ 'goldsmith'

ii) Derived nouns by Compounding:

/səotela/ 'step' > /səotela pita/ 'step father'

/səotela bhai/ 'step brother'

Animate and Inanimate nouns:

Animate nouns:

/ʃiʃu/	‘baby’
/dʊlhən/	‘bride’
/dulah/	‘bridegroom’

Inanimate nouns:

/rak ^{hi} /	‘ash’
/gup ^{ha} /	‘cave’
/maɽi/	‘clay’

Human and Non-human nouns:

Human nouns:

/dost/	‘friend (he, she)’
/ʃahabzadi/	‘girl’
/pota/	‘grandson’
/poti/	‘husband’

Non-human nouns:

/bilaɽ/	‘cat’
/dʒanʊɐ/	‘animal’
/k ^h ank ^h əɖʒura/	‘centipede’
/ʃuʒa/	‘chick’

The Urtia nouns are inflected for Gender, Number and Case.

Number

Urtia exhibits two numbers: singular and plural. In case of plural formation, plural markers /-ō/, /-ē/, /-ā/ are added with the singular forms and sometimes different forms for pronouns are also used. Even with the plural nouns the adjacent pronouns also exhibit plural forms. For examples:

Singular		Plural	
/unka ghər/	‘Their house’	/unke ghərō/	‘Their houses’
/unka ləɽka/	‘Their son’	/unke ləɽke/	‘Their sons’

Gender

Urtia recognizes a primary gender division between masculine and feminine. Gender is a lexical derived category.

Ex.	Lexically Selective -	/bhai/ ‘father’	/bəhen/ ‘sister’
	Lexically Derived -	/nati/ ‘daughter’s son’	/natin/ ‘daughter’s daughter’
		/ valid/ ‘father’	/ valida/ ‘mother’
		/dulah/ ‘bridegroom’	/dulhən/ ‘bride’

/əʃʃha admi/ ‘The good person (male)’ /əʃʃhi aurat/ ‘The good person (female)’

So here adjective is also shows different genders:

əʃʃha ‘good (male)’ > əʃʃhi “good (female)”

Cases

Urtia exhibits following case systems:

i) **Nominative Case**- The marker for nominative is /Ø/.

For example:

/vo/ram ek kitab pəʃta həi/
he /Ram a book reads
‘He/Ram reads a book’.

/vo/sita udhər khari həi/
She/Sita there stands
‘She/Sita stands there’.

ii) **Accusative Case**- when subject of the sentence is in accusative case it takes either /Ø/ or /-ne/.

For example:

/ham gājko marte həj/
we the cows beat
‘We beat the cows.’

/məhes ne am khaja/
Mahesh the mango ate
‘Mahesh ate the mango.’

iii) **Dative Case:** The dative case marker is /ko/

/sərkər	gəribōko	pəjse	deti həj/
The Government	to poor	money	gives

‘The Government gives money to poor.’

iv) **Instrumental Case:** The instrumental case marker is /-se/.

For example,

/mere	kələm-se	likhiē/
my	pen-with	write

‘Write with my pen.’

/kəiŋi-se	baloko	kaʈa/
Scissors-with	the hair	is cut

‘The hair is cut with scissors’

v) **Ablative Case:** In this language ablative case marker is /-se/.

For example:

/bo	mejre	khirkise	giŋgəja/
he	my	window-from	fell down

‘He fell down from my window.’

/məj	dərəkhtse	dur	hū/
I	the tree-from	far	am

‘I am far from the tree’

vi) **Genitive Case:** Genitive is shown by using different forms which indicate possession. For example:

/mera	bəŋʃa/
my	child

‘My child.’

/unke	ākhe/
her	eyes

‘Her eyes.’

/unke	ghərō/
their	house

‘Their house’

vi) **Locative Case:** Locative case marker is either /-pər/ or /Ø/.

/ap bazar dʒarəhehəj/
 You(sg) to the market are going
 ‘You(sg) are going to the market’

/tota dərəkhtpər həj/
 the parrot the tree on is
 ‘The parrot is on the tree’

Post-Positions

Postpositions are indeclinable. They can be either free or bound. The post-positions available in Urtia are as follows :

/age/	as in	/hamare age/	‘before me’
/pas/	as in	/hamare pas/	‘near me’
/bin/	as in	/hamare bin/	‘without me’
/sath/	as in	/tumahre sath/	‘with me’
/liye/	as in	/tumahre liye/	‘for you’
/bad/	as in	/uske bad/	‘after him/ that’
/upor/	as in	/ghar ke upor/	‘above the house’
/piche/	as in	/ghar ke piche/	‘behind the house’
/əndar/	as in	/ghar ke əndar/	‘inside the house’

iii) Pronoun

i) Personal Pronoun

	Singular	dual	Plural	
1 st P	/məi/ ‘I’	/həmdono/ ‘we(two)’	/həm/	‘we’
2 nd P	/tum/ ‘you sg.’	/apdono/ ‘you(two)’	/ap log/	‘you (pl)’
3 rd P	/vo/ ‘he’, /vo/ ‘she’, /vo/ ‘it’	/vo dono/ ‘they(two)’	/vo log/ /ve sab/	‘they’

ii) Reflexive Pronoun

In Urtia / khud/ is added to pronouns to form reflexive pronoun:

/hamne khud/ ‘(we) ourself’

/tum khud/	‘(you) your self’
/usne khud/	‘himself’
/vokhud/	‘herself’
/vokhud/	‘itself’

iii) RelativePronoun

In Relative pronouns include the following forms:

/kiũ/	‘why’
/kəun/	‘who’
/kãha/	‘where’

iv) Interrogative Pronoun

In Urtia, interrogative pronouns are:

/kja/	‘what’
/kəb/	‘when’
/kãha/	‘where’
/kəunsi/	‘which’
/kəun/	‘who’
/kiũ/	‘why’

v) Demonstratives

Urtia language has two kinds of demonstrative pronouns-remote and proximate.

i) Remote

Singular		Plural	
/vəhi/ /vo/	‘that’	/vo səb/	‘those’.

ii) Proximate

Singular		Plural	
/je/	‘this’	/je səb/	‘these’.

iv) Adjective

Adjectives occur before/modify the nouns and sometimes change display according to gender:

/pjari laqliã/	‘The good girls’
/pjara bəŋŋa/	‘The good children’

/əʃʃha beʈa/	‘The good boy’
/əʃʃhi beʈi/	‘The good girl’

Types of adjectives

The adjectives can be divided in two groups –

- i) **Adjectives proper** and ii) **Numerals**

The adjectives proper can be of various types depending on derivation and the attributive aspects. They can be Participial adjective (/səra/ ‘spoiled’); quantitative adjectives (/sAb/ ‘all’, /ədh/ ‘much’, /bAhut/ ‘many’); qualitative adjectives (ələs/ ‘idle’); etc.

The main division of adjectives from inflectional point of view is into (i) indeclinable adjectives and (ii) declinable adjectives. The later inflect for the categories of gender, number while the former remain uninflected.

Indeclinable Adjectives –

The following are a few indeclinable adjectives –

/ ələs /	‘idle’	/ khərab /	‘bad’
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Declinable Adjectives

/moTə/ ‘big’ with three genders and two numbers

Mas.moTo(sg.) moTa (pl.) Fem. moTi(sg.) moTiN(pl.) Neu. moTu(sg.) moTa(pl.)

Few derived adjectives are exemplified below –

dukh	‘sorrow’	>	dukhi	‘sorrowful’
sukh	‘comfort’	>	sukhi	‘happy living in comfort’
des	‘country’	>	desi	‘country made’

Quantitative	/səbhi/	all
	/koi/	No one
Qualitative	/buʈa/	bad

v) Numerals

Two types of numerals used namely; cardinals and ordinals.

Cardinal Numerals

e:k	‘one’
do	‘two’
ti:n	‘three’
ʈʂa:r	‘four’
pāc	‘five’
che	‘six’
sa:t	‘seven’
a:T	‘eight’
nau	‘nine’
das	‘ten’
bi:s	‘twenty’
tris	‘thirty’
ʈʂha:lis	‘forty’
sou	‘hundred’

Compounding the proper bound form forms Numbers from 11 to 99.

38 will be	Eight + Thirty	= 38
	ar+ tri :s	= artris
34 will be	Four + Thirty	= 34
	chow + tri:s	= chowtris

With the exceptions of 19 which are formed as –1+ 20 = units i.e. (19), like that 29 to 89.
Number greater than 100 are expressed on the phrase level order of constituents will be

/ sou /	‘hundred’
/haza:r/	‘thousand’
/lakho /	‘lakh’
/ koro:r /	‘crore’

Ordinals

The ordinal numerals are realised by the suffix / -la / and /-ra/ with the stem.

To denote ‘first’ the suffix / –la / is affixed with the stem /pah-/

pah + la	=	‘first’
dus + ra	=	‘second’
tis + ra	=	‘third’

Fractions

The fractions are realised by separate morphemes.

/dɛɾ/	one and a half
/d ^h ai/	two and a half
/səva/	one and a quarter
/pao/	quarter

vi) Classifiers

The relation of a number word to the noun it counts, is mediated by a classifier. The followings are the classifiers available

/sab/	‘all’
/thora/	‘a little’
/itna/	‘so much’
/bahut/	‘so much’
/kuf/	‘a few’

Verb Morphology

Verb is a class of words inflected for the categories of tense, aspect and/ or mood. Verb stems may either be simple or complex. A simple stem consists of only a root. A complex stem has a root followed by one or more derivational or formative elements.

i) **Types of verb-** A verb denotes action. Based on the type of action, Verbs could be divided into various groups as follows.

a) Physical Activity Verbs

/kamse lagana/	‘to arrange (put things in order)’
/b ^h ōkna/	‘to bark (as a dog)’
/piṭna/	‘to beat (somebody)’
/moṭna/	‘to bend (stick)’

b) Instrument Verbs

/gəɖɖa k ^h oɽna/	‘dig (a hole)’
/ʃikar kərna/	‘hunt’
/mahin kərna/	‘pound (e.g. grain)’

c) Verbs of fighting

/harna/	‘to defeat’
/apni hipadʒət kərna/	‘to defend’
/ləɽai kərna/	‘to fight (with each other)’
/ʃ ^h indna/	‘to grab’
/ahət kərna/	‘to injure (a person)’

d) Music Verbs

/piɽna/	‘to beat (somebody)’
/moɽna/	‘to bend (stick)’
/bāndna/	‘to bind’
/kaɽna/	‘to bite’

e) Motion verbs

/zəmin pər utərna/	‘to alight (as a bird or butterfly)’
/ʃəɽna/	‘to ascend, climb (a hill)’
/hakna/	‘to drive(cattle or other animals)’

Finite verb formation

Verbs can be of two types – finite and non-finite. Finite verb consists of a stem followed by mood, tense and aspect markers, which are further, followed by person, gender and number markers. These person, gender and number markers maintain a concord with the subject or object in a sentence and vary according to their person, gender and number markers. The inflected form of a verb for different mood, tense and aspect come under finite verbs.

In Urtia, finite verbs are formed by adding different suffixes to the verb root. They agree with person and tense. As an example, different formations of the verb /ɖʒa/ ‘to go’ for three different persons are given below.

1. Tense

Accordingly, verbs in Urtia are morphologically marked for having three way opposition of tense as

1. Present Tense
2. Past Tense and
3. Future Tense.

i) **Simple Present Tense:** In present indefinite verb root /dʒa/ 'to go' takes

/-rəhahũ / suffix in case of first person singular and /-rəhehəj/ for plural

/- rəhehəj/ suffix for second person.

/-rəhehəj/, /-rəhihəj/, /-tehəj/ suffix for third person.

/məj bazar dʒarəhahũ/	'I go to the market'
/ham bazar dʒarəhehəj/	'We go to the market'
/hamdono bazar dʒarəhehəj/	'We (two) go to the market'
/ap bazar dʒarəhehəj/	'You (sg) go to the market'
/aplog bazar dʒarəhehəj/	'You (pl) go to the market'
/vo bazar dʒarəhehəj/	'He goes to the market'
/vo bazar dʒarəhihəj/	'She goes to the market'
/je bazar dʒatehəj/	'It goes to the market'
/vo bazar dʒatehəj/	'They go to the market'

ii) **Simple Past Tense:** In past indefinite verb root /gəyi-/ 'went' takes

/-at^ha/ suffix in case of first person singular and /-et^he/ for plural.

/-et^he/ suffix for second person.

/- at^ha/, /-it^hi/, /-et^he/ suffix for third person.

/məj bazar gəyat ^h a/	'I went to the market'
/ham bazar gəyet ^h e/	'We went to the market'
/hamdono bazar gəyet ^h e/	'We (two) went to the market'
/ap bazar gəyet ^h e/	'You(sg) went to the market'
/aplog bazar gəyet ^h e/	'You(pl) went to the market'
/vo bazar gəyat ^h a/	'He went to the market'
/vo bazar gəyit ^h i/	'She went to the market'
/vo bazar gəyet ^h e/	'They went to the market'
/vodono bazar gəyet ^h e/	'They (two) went to the market'

- ii) **Simple Future Tense:** in case of simple future tense the verb root /dʒa-/ ‘will go’ takes different case markers for different persons.

/-uŋgã/ is the First person marker for singular person and /-eŋgẽ/ plural.

/-oŋgẽ/ is the Second person marker for singular and /-eŋgẽ/ for plural.

/-eŋgẽ/, /-eŋgi/, /-ega/ are the Third person markers.

/məj bazar dʒauŋgã/	‘I will go to the market’
/ham bazar dʒaeŋgẽ/	‘We will go to the market’
/hamapdono bazar dʒaeŋgẽ/	‘We (two) will go to the market’
/tum iskul dʒaoŋgẽ/	‘You(sg) will go to the school’
/aplog iskul dʒaeŋgẽ/	‘You(pl) will go to the school’
/ʋo k ^h etpər dʒãeŋgẽ/	‘He will go to the field’
/ʋo k ^h etpər dʒaeŋgi/	‘She will go to the field’
/ʋo dʒəŋgəl dʒaeŋgẽ/	‘They will go to the jungle’

2. Aspect

Aspect refers to duration, perfection, recurrence etc. Urtia has mainly two types of aspects 1. Durative and 2. Perfective.

- i). **Durative or Imperfective Aspect-** It describes an action which is regarded as continuous in the past or present or future tenses. For example,

- a) **Present Continuous Aspect-** Present continuous forms for ‘going’ in Urtia shows no verb person concordance:

/məj bazar dʒarəhahũ/	‘I am going to the market’
/ham bazar dʒarəhehəj/	‘We are going to the market’
/hamdono bazar dʒarəhehəj/	‘We(two) are going to the market’
/ap bazar dʒarəhehəj/	‘You(sg) are going to the market’
/aplog bazar dʒarəhehəj/	‘You(pl) are going to the market’
/ʋo bazar dʒarəhahəj/	‘He is going to the market’
/ʋo bazar dʒarəhihəj/	‘She is going to the market’
/ʋolog bazar dʒarəhehəj/	‘They are going to the market’

b) **Past Continuous Aspect-** Past continuous forms for different persons for the verb ‘to go’ are as follows:

/məj bazar dʒarəhat ^h a/	‘I was going to the market’
/ham bazar dʒarəhet ^h e/	‘We were going to the market’
/hamdono bazar dʒarəhet ^h e/	‘We(two)were going to the market’
/ap bazar dʒarəhet ^h e/	‘You(sg) were going to the market’
/aplog bazar dʒarəhet ^h e/	‘You(pl) were going to the market’
/vo bazar dʒarəhat ^h a/	‘He was going to the market’
/vo bazar dʒarəhit ^h i/	‘She was going to the market’
/vo bazar dʒarəhat ^h a/	‘It was going to the market’
/volog bazar dʒarəhet ^h e/	‘They were going to the market’
/vodono bazar dʒarəhet ^h e/	‘They(two)were going to the market’

c) **Future Continuous Aspect-** Future continuous markers of different persons for the verb ‘to go’ are as follows:

/məj bazar dʒarəhahuhōŋga/	‘I will be going to the market’
/ham bazar dʒarəhehōŋge/	‘We will be going to the market’
/hamdono bazar dʒarəhehōŋge/	‘We (two) will be going to the market’
/ap k ^h etme dʒarəhehōŋge/	‘You(sg) will be going to the field’
/aplog k ^h etpər dʒarəhehōŋge/	‘You(pl) will be going to the field’
/vo k ^h etpər dʒarəhahōga/	‘He will be going to the field’
/vo k ^h etpər dʒarəhihōgi/	‘She will be going to the field’
/vo k ^h etpər dʒarəhehōŋge/	‘They will be going to the field’

iii) **Perfective Aspect**

It describes an action either completed in the past or to be completed in the past. In the present it expresses the completion of an action which is just finished. In the past it expresses the action which is already done. The action to be completed in near future is expressed in future perfect. In Urtia language examples of perfective aspect is expressed by present, past and future perfect tense.

a) **Present Perfect Aspect-** Present perfect forms for different persons for the verb ‘to go’ are as follows where the verb form remains /gəj-/:

/məj bazar gəjahuahũ/	‘I have gone to the market’
/ham bazar gəjehuehəj/	‘We have gone to the market’
/hamdono bazar gəjehuehəj/	‘We (two) have gone to the market’
/ap bazar gəjehuehəj/	‘You(sg) have gone to the market’
/aplog bazar gəjehuehəj/	‘You(pl) have gone to the market’

/ʋo bazar gəjahuahəj/	‘He has gone to the market’
/ʋo bazar gəjihuihəj/	‘She has gone to the market’
/ʋolog bazar gəjehuehəj/	‘They have gone to the market’

b) **Past Perfect Aspect-** Past perfective markers for different persons for the verb ‘to go’ are as follows where the verb form becomes /gəj-/:

/məj bazar gəjahuat ^h a/	‘I had gone to the market’
/ham bazar gəjehuet ^h e/	‘We had gone to the market’
/hamdono bazar gəjehuet ^h e/	‘We (two) had gone to the market’
/ap bazar gəjehuet ^h e/	‘You(sg) had gone to the market’
/aplog bazar gəjehuet ^h e/	‘You(pl) had gone to the market’
/ʋo bazar gəjahuat ^h a/	‘He had gone to the market’
/ʋo bazar gəjihuit ^h i/	‘She had gone to the market’
/ʋo bazar gəjehuet ^h e/	‘They had gone to the market’

c) **Future Perfect Aspect-** Future perfective marker for the verb ‘to go’ is as follows where the verb form becomes /gəj-/:

/məj bazar gəjahuahōŋga/	‘I shall have gone to the market’
/ham bazar gəjehuehōŋge/	‘We will have gone to the market’
/hamlog bazar gəjehuehōŋge/	‘We (two) will have gone to the market’
/ap bazar gəjehuehōŋge/	‘You(sg) will have gone to the market’
/aplog bazar gəjehuehōŋge/	‘You(pl) will have gone to the market’
/ʋo bazar gəjahuahōga/	‘He will have gone to the market’
/ʋo bazar gəjihuihōgi/	‘She will have gone to the market’
/ʋo bazar gəjehuehōŋge/	‘They will have gone to the market’

3. Moods

Mood expresses the attitude of the speaker towards what he/she is saying in terms of the degree or kind of reality in terms of indicative, imperative, conditional propositional content of the sentence.

i) **Indicative Mood-** According to collected data most verbs in this language used are in indicative mood, which indicates the action. For example

/ʋo tərta həj /	‘He swims’
/je admi moṭa həj/	‘That man is fat’

ii) **Imperative Mood-** Verbs in imperative mood denote commands or requests. For example:

/idhar ao/	‘come here
/bəith d̪aiye/	‘sit down’

vi) **Conditional/Subjunctive Mood-** When the completion of one verbal action is conditioned by another verb that particular manner of expression is called as Conditional modal category. In this mood two verbal actions are involved simultaneously. For example:

/məjhenət kəriega to səfəl hoiega/	‘If he works hard he will succeed’
/əgər ʈren derse ati to hamlog pakər səkte/	‘If the train is late we may catch it’

Non-finite Verb

Nonfinite verb formation are as follows:

Infinitive- Infinitive is a non-finite verb form. In Urtia we find the following examples with the infinitives:

/məjne apko aneke lie kəhatha/	‘I told you to come’
/ʈfiria gana gana pəsənd kərtihəj/	‘Birds love to sing’

Gerund

A gerund is a verbal noun. Since it is a kind of noun, it may be the subject to some verb or the object to some verb. For example,

/ghoṛōse dəoṛna hotahəj/	‘Running is done by the horse’
/bhōknevale kutte bəhət kəm kaṭtehəj/	‘Barking dogs seldom bite’

Here, /dəoṛna/ ‘Running’, /bhōknevale/ ‘barking’ are gerund and playing the role of the subject of the sentence.

Participles

A participle is a verbal adjective. It is called so because it is partly a verb and partly an adjective. e.g.

/ʈhapihui kitabe pəṛneme asan hotehəj/	“Printed books are easy to read”
/vo giṛehue phələko ikəṭṭha kithi/	“She collected the fallen fruits”

Causation

Morphological Causatives is marked by **/-a/**. Here the morph **/-a/** is added to the root verb to make it causative.

For example- 1. /dɔɔrna/ 'to run' :/dɔɔrana/ 'to make run'
 2. /k^hana/ 'to eat' : /k^hilna/ 'to feed'

Auxiliary Verbs

Auxiliary verbs modify the action of the main Verbs. The auxiliary verbs generally follow the main verbs and denote

action (different degree of continuity)
 time (past, present)
 mode (condition, doubt)

In English, Auxiliary Verbs occur before the main verbs, but in Indian languages they follow the main verbs. Therefore, they are the subsidiary verbs (also called helping verbs).

Ex. /mej ja səkta hun/ 'I can go'
 /vo kor səkta hej/ 'he/she can do'
 /aj rat bəɾph gir səkta hej/ 'it may snow tonight'
 /həmē apne des se prem kəɾna ʃahiye/ 'we ought to love our country'

Negation

Negation is marked by adding negative particle /naj/ or /na/

For example- 1. /həm tuka pəhele naj dek^he rəhe/ 'We have never seen you before'
 2. /tusəbine na pəɾət rəha/ 'You(pl) are not reading'

Compound Verbs

Compounds are formed by the addition of a verb root or an auxiliary to a noun in accusative or locative (nominal) or an unaffected verbal conjunctive or a participle (verbal). The verb root/ Auxiliary take the agreement morphemes.

/hāsna/ 'to laugh' as in /vo hāns di/ 'he/she laughed'
 /rona/ 'to cry' as in /ram ro di/ 'Ram cried'

There are a large number of compound verbal formations available, which are formed by combining two or more verbal forms. Generally, the verbs /-dena/ 'to give', /-lena/ 'to take' and /-jana/ 'to go' are used for the second verbal formation in compound verbs.

/lena/ 'to take' as in /likh lo/ 'note down'
 /dena/ 'to give' as in /hās dia/ 'might have laughed'
 /hona/ 'to be' > /ho jana/ 'to become'
 /sona/ 'to sleep' > /so jana/ 'to go to sleep'
 /ana/ 'to come' > /a jana/ 'to arrive etc.'

Passivization- A passive sentence is created from an active sentence by:

1. Subject changes into object.
2. Adding “by” which is optional.
3. Object changes to the subject.
4. Changing the verb form to its participle form.

Active:	/ghoṛa dəortahəj/	‘The horse runs.’
Passive:	/ghoṛōse dəoṛna hotahəj/	‘Running is done by the horse.’

Use of passive formations in sentences are very rare.

Transitivity

Transitivity is a verbal property. When an intransitive verb gets transitivity, it is used as a transitive one. For example

Transitive verb-

e.g. /dekhna/ ‘to see’

/məj	ʃīria	dekhtahũ/
I	the bird	see
‘I see the bird.’		

Intransitive verb- e.g. /sona/ ‘to sleep’

/vo	dəṛəkhtke	niʃe	sota həj/
He	the tree	under	sleeps
‘He sleeps under the tree.’			

Ditransitive verb- where the verb takes two objects. e.g. /dena/ ‘to give’

/vo	mudʒhe	pāʃ	rupia	deta həj/
He	me	5	rupees	gives
‘He gives me 5 rupees.’				

Adverb- Adverbs and particles are indeclinable. These adverbs can be time, place and manner variants.

Adverbs of Place -

/jəha/	‘here’
/udhər/	‘there’

/səth/	‘with’
/nəzdik/ /	‘near’
/bahar/	‘outside’
/dur/	‘far’

Interrogative forms-

/kəb/	‘When’
/kon/	‘Who’

Adverbs of time -

/aj/	‘today’
/badme/	‘afterwards’
/ roḍ /	‘daily/always’

Adverbs of manner-

/magni/	‘costly’
/ahistase/	‘slowly’

Particle

Conjunctions and Interjections are called Particles.

Conjunctions connect the link between the two words, phrases and sentences. The followings are the different types of Conjunctions :

Conjunctive	-	/ aur /	‘and’
Adversative	-	/ lekin /	‘but’
Conditional	-	/ əgər /	‘if’
Adverbial	-	/ tAb /	‘then’
Complementary	-	/ o /	‘that’

Interjections

Interjections are of two types: Basic and functional. The basic interjections are those which occur only as interjections: e.g. / wa wa / ‘well done’ , / hae hae / ‘alas’ etc.

Functional interjections are those which belong to other parts of speech but functions as interjections in the use. e.g.

/ ram ram kya hua / ‘Oh God! what happened?’

Echo-Formations

These formations are used as interjections or as indeclinable nouns in reference –
Example:

/ likhalikh /	‘act of writing’
/ sud dud /	‘intelligence’

The following words are formed in this language by altering the first consonant to /ph/ in the second reduplicated element and there is no change in the first element which actually carries the meanings. The second element is only the echo-form does not occur by itself, extends the meaning of the stem like “etc.”

A few examples are :

kəm - phəm	:	work
sakkər - phakkər	:	sugar etc.

In the following type both the elements have similar meanings or both are synonyms but these elements occur in the same order. The second element simply extends the meaning of the first – element. Like /bol - tʃal/ : ‘talks’

5. SYNTAX

The study of syntax deals with the structure of the sentences i.e. how the different types of sentences are organized and spoken in this language.

5.1 Order of Words in sentences

As in other Indo-Aryan languages, Urtia, also follows the word order of Subject– Object – Verb i.e. SOV type. English is having the SVO i.e. Subject-Verb-Object type of word order whereas Indian languages (as Urtia, also shows) are having SOV type of word order.

/məi	skul	dʒarəhatha/	‘I was going to school’.
I	to School	was going	
S	O	V	

/ram-ne	am	khaya/	‘Ram ate mango’.
Ram	mango	ate	
S	O	V	

5.2 Description of types of sentences

Interrogative Sentence

In interrogative sentences there is no specific restricted place for the elements carrying interrogative. In case of ‘yes-no question’ the negative particle is seen in the sentence initial position but in case other sentences question word is placed before the correspondent ‘be verb’.

For example,

/kja vo apki bəhen həi?/	‘Is she your sister?’
/apke bəʃʃjē kāha həi?/	‘Where are your children?’
/ap kja khate həi?/	What do you eat?

Imperative Sentence

Imperative sentences express command or plea generally in the second person where the term denoting person (subject) remains omitted.

For example:

/əndar ao/	‘Come inside’
/dərvaɖʒa bəndh kiɖʒie/	‘(you) Close the door’
/bəjʃh ɖʒaiē/	‘(you) Sit down’

Negativization

In a SOV ordered language the negative element generally comes after verb of the sentence. But in Urtia the negative element /nəhi/, /mət/are added before verbs. For example,

/dʒorse bat mət kəriẽ/	‘do not speak loudly.’
/ramu kal nəhi ajega/	‘Ramu will not come tomorrow’

Causativization:

The causative sentences are formed by adding causative marker or using different causative form of the verb.

For example.

a) /məj bəʃʃeko khilarəhahũ/	‘I feed the baby’
b) /məj narsse bəʃʃeko khilvətahũ/	‘I make the nurse feed the baby’.
c) /məj roʃi kharəhahũ/	‘I eat bread’

1st and 2nd Causative construction - kharəhahũ > khilarəhahũ > khilvətahũ

5.3 Description of patterns of Sentences

i) Simple Sentence

The simple sentence consists of a subject and a predicate consisting of a finite transitive or intransitive verb. For example,

/hamlog we	ʃiria the bird	dekhte-həi / see	‘We see the bird’.	
/hamlog we	ghoʃeki the horses	səvari ride	kəʃte-həi/ to do	‘We ride the horses’.

ii) Complex Sentence

A sentence having one principal clause followed by one or more subordinate clause (s) is a complex sentence. For example:

/əgər məj uha rəheta to tumko səhəra milta/
‘If I (we) am (are) there, you will have (some) support’

/aplog səməjse aje to iski ham pərikʃa kəreŋge/
‘If you come in time we will examine this’

iii) Compound Sentence

A compound sentence consists of two or more simple sentences added with ‘and’, ‘but’ etc. Some compound sentences of Urtia languages are given below:

Co-ordination

/mera pɛjɛr phisəl gəja ɔr məj giɾgəja/
‘My foot slipped and I fell down’

Sub-Ordination

/ram kriʃnəko aneke lie bola lekin kriʃnəke pas səməj nəhitha/
‘Rama asked Krishna to come but Krishna had no time.’

Here the conjunctions are /ɔr/ ‘and’ (Co-ordination) and /lekin/ ‘but’ (Sub-Ordination).

6. TEXT

Two friends and a Bear

Two friends, Ramu and Shyam walked through a forest. They
/do dost ramu cor syamu dʒa rəhe tʰe se ek dʒəŋgəl unhone

promised each other that
wada kiya ek dusre se ki

they would remain united in case of any danger. Once
wo rəheŋge sat kisi bʰi pəresani me ekdin

they were walking through a forest. A bear came in front of them.
wo dʒa rəhe tʰe dʒəŋgəl se ek bʰalu aya samne

Ramu climbed a tree. Shyam did not know
ramu ʃəɽ gəya dərəkʰət pər syamu nəhi ata

to climb a tree. He told his friend, “I do not know
ʃəɽʰna dərəkʰət pər wo bola apne dost ko nəhi ata hey

how to climb a tree, please help me.”
dərəkʰət pər ʃəɽʰna bəɽi meherbani hogi mere mədət kəro

But Ramu did not respond. In fear and grief, Shyam
pər ramu ne koi dʒəwab nəhi diya pəresan cor mayus ho kər syam

lay down on the ground breathless.
so gəya zəmin pər sās rok kər

The bear came near Shyam lying on the ground.
bʰalu a pəhōʃa pas syam ke zəmin pər leɽe

It smelt him, and after smelling for some time left him
use suŋne ləga cor kuʃʰ der suŋne ke bad wo ʃʰoɽ kər wəhī ʃəla gəya

Sitting on the tree Ramu thought the bear said something in Shyam’s ear.
dərəkʰt pər bəyʃʰe hue ramu ko ləga ki bʰalu kuʃʰ bol kər gəya syam ke kan

He quickly came down and asked Shyam
wo dʒəldi niʃe aya cor syam se puʃʰa

"Friend, what did tell the bear you into your ears?"
dosto mere kya bola wo b^halu tumhare kan me

Shyam got up from the ground and replied Ramu,
syam u^tha zamin se oor ramu ko bola

"The bear advised me
wo b^halu muj^he bola

not to trust on lying people who
iyekin mat karo d^hut^he alsi logō par d^ho

leaves you in times of trouble."
ekela f^hot kar f^hela d^haye musibat par

Saying this Shyam walked in own way.
itna kehke syam f^hela gaya wahā se akele/

/ramu syamu do dost t^he unhone ek dusre se wada kiya t^ha ki wo kisi b^hi pāresani me sat rāhenge
ekdin wo d^hoṅgāl se d^ha rāhe t^he samne ek b^halu aya b^halu ko dek^h kar do dost bohut g^habra
gāye ramu g^habra kar dārakhāt par f^hat gaya syam ko dārakhāt par pura f^hat^hna nāhi ata t^ha wo
apne dost ramu ko bola dārakhāt par f^hat^hna nāhi ata hey b^hari meherbani hogi mere mādāt karo
par ramu ne koi d^howab nāhi diya mayus pāresan ho kar syam zamin par apni sās rok kar so
gāya d^holdihi wahā b^halu a p^hōḍfā zamin par lete syam ko dek^h kar uske pas gaya oor use sunne
laga kut^h der sunne ke bad wo f^hot kar wāhī f^hela gaya dārakhāt par bāy^he hue ramu ko laga ki
b^halu syam ke kan kut^h bol kar gaya wo d^holdi nit^he aya oor syam se pu^tha dosto mere wo b^halu
tumhare kan me kya bola syam zamin se u^tha oor ramu ko bola wo b^halu muj^he bola ki d^hut^he
alsi logō par iye kin mat karo d^ho tumhe musibat par ekela f^hot kar f^hela d^haye itna kehke syam
wahā se akele f^hela gaya/

COMPARATIVE LEXICON

Sl.No.	English Gloss	Hindi	Awadhi	Dehati	Giharo	Gurumukhi	Khariboli
I.Earth, Sky and Water etc.							
1	air	/ʋɑjʊ/	/hawa/	/bəjari/	/həʋa/	/həwa/	/hava/
2	ashes	/rakʰ/	/rakʰi/	/rakʰi/	/rakʰ/	/suʋa/	/rakʰi/
3	cloud	/badəl/	/ʋadəl/	/badəl/	/badaru/	/badəl/	/ba:dəl/
4	cold	/tʰənd/	/tʰand/	/ʃara/	/tʰəndə/	/tʰənd/	/tʰə:nd/
5	darkness	/əndʰkar/	/anhar/	/əndʰer/	/əndʰəriə/	/andkar/	/əndʰiara/
6	earth	/prɪtʰvi/	—	—	/bʰumi/	/dʰərəti/	/dʰərti/
7	eclipse	/grəhən/	—	—	/grəhən/	/grahina/	/grəhən/
8	fire	/ag/	/agi/	/agi/	/age/	/agi/	/a:g/
9	fog	/kohra/	/kohaṛa/	/kohra/	/kohra/	/kora/	/kohṛa/
10	forest	/ʃəŋgəl/	/ʃəŋgəl/	/ʃəŋgəl/	/ʃəŋgəl/	/ʃəŋgəl/	/ʃəŋgəl/
11	hill	/pəhaṛ/	/pahaṛ/	/t̪ila/	/pahaṛ/	/paḍ/	/pahaṛ/
12	ice	/bərf/	/bərp/	/bərpʰ/	/bəreḥ/	/bərapʰi/	/bəreḥ/
13	pond	/pokʰər/	—	/talab/	/talab/	/pokʰər/	/di:p/
14	flood	/baṛʰ/	—	/bəhija/	/baṛʰ/	/baḍ/	/rasta/
15	moon	/cand/	/cād/	/cəndər mā/	/cād/	/cəndərma/	/cād/
16	mountain	/pərbət/	/pərbət/	/pəhaṛ/	/pərvət/	/paḍ/	/ūcayi/
17	rain	/bar̪iʃ/	/bariʃ/	/baris/	/ʋərsa/	/ʋəreḥa/	/ʋərsa/
18	river	/nədi/	/nəddi/	/nədi/	/nədi/	/nadi/	/nədi/
19	road	/səṛək/	/səṛək/	/pəkka rasta/	/səṛək/	/ʃəḍḍək/	/səṛək/
20	sand	/balu/	/balu/	/baru/	/baru/	/reta/	/balu:/
21	valley	/gʰaṭi/	—	/gʰaṭi/	/gʰaṭi/	/gʰaṭi/	/səmundər/
22	sky	/akaf/	/akaf/	/asman/	/akas/	/akaf/	/akas/
23	snow	/bərf/	—	—	/bəreḥ/	/bəreḥpʰa/	/bərpʰ/
24	star	/tara/	/tara/	/tarē/	/tara/	/tara/	/ta:ra/

Mainpuri	Malham	Malyani	Pratapgarhi	Rathodi	Urtia	Sl.No.	English Gloss
I.Earth, Sky and Water etc.							
/həva/	/həva/	/həva/	/həva/	/hava/	/hava/	1	air
/rəkʰ/	/rakʰ/	/rakʰ/	/rakʰi/	/ra:kʰ/	/rakʰ/	2	ashes
/badəl/	/badəl/	/badəl/	/badəl/	/badəl/	/vadəl/	3	cloud
/ʒarə/	/tʰənd/	/tʰənd/	/tʰəndʰi/	/tʰəndə/	/tʰəndʰi/	4	cold
/əndʰera/	/andʰkar/	/andʰjara/	/āndʰera/	/ēdʰera/	/andʰela/	5	darkness
/dʰərti/	/prtʰwi/	/pritʰvi/	/pritʰbi/	/dʰərti/	/pritʰvi/	6	earth
/grəhən/	/grəhən/	/grəhən/	/grihən/	/gəhən/	/grəhən/	7	eclipse
/aq/	/aq/	/aq/	/a:g/	/agi/	/ʃola/	8	fire
/kohəra/	/kohra/	/kohra/	/kuhāsa/	/koheɾo/	/kohrai/	9	fog
/ʒəŋgəl/	/ʒəŋgəl/	/ʒəŋgəl/	/bən/	/biɾha/	/vən/	10	forest
/pəhaɾ/	/pəhaɾ/	/pəhaɾ/	/pərbət/	/pahaɾ/	/pahaɾtʃa/	11	hill
/bəɾəf/	/bəɾf/	/bəɾpʰ/	/bəɾpʰ/	/bəɾəpʰ/	/bəɾpʰo/	12	ice
/pokʰər/	/dwip/	/pokʰər/	/təlav/	/tapu/	/talabē/	13	pond
/baɾʰ/	/rasta/	/baɾʰ/	/baɾ/	/rasta/	/baɾʰ/	14	flood
/cəndrəma/	/cand/	/cānd/	/cəndrəma/	/cand/	/can/	15	moon
/pərbət/	/pərbət/	/pərvət/	/pahaɾtʃ/	/pərvət/	/pahaɾtʃa/	16	mountain
/bərsa/	/bərsa/	/baris/	/bərsat/	/vərsa/	/bariʃē/	17	rain
/nədi/	/nədi/	/nədi/	/nədi:/	/nədi/	/nədi/	18	river
/səɾək/	/səɾək/	/səɾək/	/səɾək/	/gola/	/ʃəɾkē/	19	road
/baru/	/balu/	/balu/	/balu/	/bəɾʃu/	/balu/	20	sand
/gʰaɾi/	/səmədrə/	/gʰaɾi/	/gʰaɾi/	/gʰaɾi/	/gʰaɾ/	21	valley
/akas/	/akaʃ/	/akaʃ/	/a:ka:s/	/akas/	/asman/	22	sky
/bəɾəf/	/bəɾpʰ/	/bəɾpʰ/	/bəɾpʰ/	/bəɾəpʰ/	/bəɾəpʰ/	23	snow
/tara/	/tara/	/tara/	/tara/	/tara/	/tarē/	24	star

Sl.No.	English Gloss	Hindi	Awadhi	Dehati	Giharo	Gurumukhi	Khariboli
25	stone	/pəttʰər/	/pattʰər/	/patʰər/	/patʰaru/	/pəttʰər/	/pattʰəl/
26	storm	/andʰi/	/andʰi/	/ādʰi/	/andʰi/	/tupʰan/	/ādʰi/
27	sun	/surəʃ/	/surəʃ/	/surəʃ/	/surʒa/	/sərəʃ/	/surʒa/
28	water	/pani/	/pani/	/ʃəl/	/pani/	/paɳi/	/pani/
29	weather	/mɔsəm/	/məosəm/	/mɔsəm/	/mosam/	/mosəm/	/mɔsəm/
30	wind	/həva/	/teʃ hawa/	/teʃ həva/	/həva/	/teʃ həva/	/hava/
31	wood	/ləkʁi/	/ləkəʁi/	/ləkʁi/	/ləkaʁi/	/ləkdʒiʃā/	/ləkʁi/
II. Mankind, Sex, Family and Relationships etc.							
32	baby	/bəcca/	/baccja/	/ləʁka/	/baʁaro/	/mūnda/	/pəcca/
33	boy	/ləʁka/	/laika/	/ləʁka/	/ləʁka/	/mūnda/	/ləʁka/
34	bride	/bədhə/	/dulhən/	/dɔlhən/	/dulheni/	/votʃi/	/dulhən/
35	bride-groom	/dɔlha/	/dulha/	/dɔlha/	/duliha/	/prərona/	/dulha/
36	brother/elder(e.)/ younger(y.)	/bəʁa bʰai/ /cʰotʃa bʰai/	/bəʁka bʰaija/ /cʰotʃka bʰaija/	/bʰai/ (/bəʁa bʰai/)	/baʁo bʰaija/	/vəda pra/	/bəʁa bʰai/
37	child	/ʃɪʃʊ/	/valək/	/bəcca/	/sisu/	/niʃana/	/balək/
38	daughter	/betʃi/	/betʃi/	/bɪtja/	/baʁari/	/kuɖɪ/	/betʃi/
39	father	/pita/	/pita/	/bap/	/pita/	/ʈəʁi/	/pita/
40	friend	/dost/	/dost/	/dos/	/dost/	/səli/	/dost/
41	girl	/ləʁki/	/ləiki/	/betʃi/	/ləʁki/	/kuɖɪ/	/ləʁki/
42	husband	/pəti/	/pəti/	/pəti/	/pəti/	/proɳa/	/admi/
43	male	/pəʁʊʃ/	/admi/	/pəʁʊʃ/	/pəʁʊʃ/	/puraʃ/	/purus/
44	man	/admi/	/ʃəwan admi/ /buʁha admi/	/admi/	/ʃəwan admi/	/admi/	/buʁha admi/
45	marriage	/vɪvəh/	/biha/	/bivah/	/viʒa/	/viʒa/	/bivə:/
46	maternaluncle	/mama/	/mama/	/mama/	/mama/	/mama/	/mama/
47	maternaluncle's daughter	/məmeri bəhen/	/mameri bəhin/	/mama ki bɪtja/	/mameri bəhen/	/mame dɪ pən/	/mameri bəhən/
48	mother	/mā/	/maji/	/mataʃi/	/ama/	/mā/	/ma/

Mainpuri	Malham	Malyani	Pratapgarhi	Rathodi	Urtia	Sl.No.	English Gloss
/pəttʰər/	/pəttʰər/	/pəttʰər/	/pəttʰər/	/pəttʰər/	/pəttʰər/	25	stone
/andʰi/	/tupʰan/	/ādhī/	/tu:fa:n/	/andʰi/	/andʰi/	26	storm
/surəʃ/	/sərja/	/sərje/	/surəʃ/	/surəʃ/	/surəʃ/	27	sun
/pani/	/pani/	/pani/	/pa:ni:/	/pani/	/pani/	28	water
/mɔsəm/	/mosəm/	/mɔsəm/	/mosəm/	/məsəm/	/məsəm/	29	weather
/andʰi/	/teʃ həwa/	/teʃ həva/	/a:ndʰi:/	/teʃ hava/	/havajē/	30	wind
/ləkərja/	/ləkʃi/	/ləkʃi/	/ləkʃi/	/ləkərja/	/ləkʃja/	31	wood
II. Mankind, Sex, Family and Relationships etc.							
/bəcca/	/bəcca/	/bəcca/	/bacca/	/ləkʃa/	/ʃiʃu/	32	baby
/ləʃa/	/ləkʃa/	/ləkʃa/	/ləkʃa/	/ləkʃa/	/ʃəhebzade/	33	boy
/bəhu/	/bədu/	/dɔlhən/	/duləhin/	/dulhen/	/dulhən/	34	bride
/dulha/	/dɔlha/	/dɔlha/	/dulha/	/dula/	/dulha/	35	bride-groom
/bəʃo bʰəia/	/bəʃa bʰai/	/bəʃa bʰai/	/baʃa: bʰa:ʃi:/, /cʰo:ʃa: bʰa:ʃi:/	/bʰəia/	/bəʃe bʰaizan/	36	brother/elder(e.) /younger(y.)
/balək/	/balək/	/balək/	/balək/	/balək/	/bəcce/c	37	child
/beʃi/	/beʃi/	/beʃi/	/biʃja:/	/beʃi/	/beʃi/	38	daughter
/pitaʃi/	/pita/	/pita/	/babɔ/	/ba:p/	/valid/	39	father
/dost/	/dost/	/dost/	/mitrə/	/dost/	/dost/	40	friend
/ləʃki/	/ləʃki/	/ləʃki/	/ləʃki/	/laŋki/	/ləʃki/	41	girl
/pəti/	/pəti/	/pəti/	/pəti/	/admi/	/ʃəhər/	42	husband
/admi/	/pəʃɔʃ/	/pəʃɔʃ/	/admi/	/admi/	/səhebzade/	43	male
/admi/	/admi/	/admi/	/pəʃɔʃ/	/ʃavan admi/ /buʃa admi/	/admi/	44	man
/bivah/	/ʃadi/	/ʃadi/	/biva:h/	/bevae/	/ʃadi/	45	marriage
/mama/	/mama/	/mama/	/mama/	/memma/	/mama/	46	maternaluncle
/mameri bəhen/	/məmeri bəhən/	/məmeri bəhen/	/mameri bəhən/	/mai ki ləʃki/	/mama ki beti/	47	maternaluncle's daughter
/əmma/	/mā/	/mā/	/ma:ʃi:/	/mata/	/məmmiʃan /	48	mother

Sl.No.	English Gloss	Hindi	Awadhi	Dehati	Giharo	Gurumukhi	Khariboli
49	nephew	/bʰətiʃa/	—	/bʰətiʃ/	/bʰətiʃo/	/cace da pra/	/bʰətiʃa/
50	niece	/bʰətiʃi/	—	/bʰətiʃi/	/bʰətiʃi/	/cacəri pən/	/bʰətiʃi/
51	twin	/ʃʊɽva/	/buɽha admi/	/ʃʊɽva/	/ʃʊɽva/	/ʃōɽa/	/buɽha admi/
52	people	/log/	—	/logō/	/bəhot admi/	/lok/	/admi/
53	tall	/mehman/	/ləmba/	/ləmba/	/mēhman/	/pronɛ/	/ləmba/
54	lean	/pəɽla/	/patər/	/patər/	/patro/	/pəɽla/	/pəɽla/
55	fat	/moɽa/	/moɽi/	/moaɽ/	/cərbi/	/moɽa/	/moɽa/
56	dumb	/guɽga/ /guɽgi/	/guɽa/ /guɽi/	/gōga/ /gōgi/	/guɽgo/	/gūnga/gūngi/	/muɽga/
57	relatives	/səmbəndʰi/	/əndʰa/	/natedar/	/ɾɪstedar/	/ristedar/	/əndʰa/
58	sister/elder(e.)/ younger(y.)	/bəɽi bəhen/ /cʰoɽi bəhen/	/bəɽi bəhin/ /cʰoɽi bəhin/	/bəhen/ (/cʰoɽi bəhen/)	/bəɽi bəhen/	/pən/	/bəɽi bəhən/
59	sister-in-law	/nənəd/ /sali/	/nənəd/	/nənd/	/nandi/	/nənan/	/nənəd/
60	son	/beɽa/	/beɽa/	/potrə/	/baɽaro/	/mūndə/	/beɽa/
61	widow	/vidʰva/	/raɽ/	/bidʰva/	/ɾāɽ/	/vidva/	/bidʰva/
62	wife	/biʋi/	/mehraru/	/pəɽni/	/pəɽni/	/voɽi/	/pəɽni/
63	woman	/ɔorət/	/əorət/	/ɔrət/	/əɔrat/	/oratɪ/	/əorət/
III. Animals, Birds, etc.							
64	ant	/cīɽi/	/ciɽi/	/cēɽi/	/cīɽi/	/cinɽi/	/cīuɽi/
65	bird	/ciɽa/	/ciriʃa/	/ciɽəʃa/	/ciɽəa/	/pəcʰi/	/pəncʰi/
66	cat	/billi/	/billi/	/billih/	/bɪlaɪa/	/billi/	/billi/
67	claw	/pəɽʃa/	/pəɽʃa/	/nəh/	/nakʰoni/	/no/	/pəɽʃa/
68	cock	/mɔɽga/	/murgɪ/	/mɔɽga/	/mɔɽga/	/kukəɽa/	/murgə/
69	cow	/gaɽ/	/gai/	/gae/	/gaɪ/	/ga/	/ga:y/
70	crab	/kēkɽa/	—	—	/kekɽa/	/kekəɽa/	/kēkɽa/
71	dog	/kōtta/	/kutta/	/kukɔɽ/	/ɔkarɔ/	/kutta/	/kutta/
72	egg	/əndə/	/andə/	/əndə/	/əndə/	/āndə/	/əndə/
73	feather	/pəɽkʰ/	/pəɽkʰ/	/pəkʰna/	/pəɽkʰ/	/pākʰi/	/pəɽkʰ/

Mainpuri	Malham	Malyani	Pratapgarhi	Rathodi	Urtia	Sl.No.	English Gloss
/b ^h ətiʃa/	/b ^h āʃa/	/b ^h āʃa/	/mamera b ^h ai/	/məmero b ^h əiʃa/	/b ^h anʃa/	49	nephew
/b ^h ətiʃi/	/b ^h āʃi/	/cāceri bəhen/	/mame:ri: bahen/	/məmeri bəhen/	/b ^h anʃi/	50	niece
/ʃuɽva/	/ʃūrəvā/	/ʃɽva/	/ʃɽwa/	/buɽa admi/	/ʃoɽowe/	51	twin
/lok/	/log/	/log/	/log/	/admi/	/log/	52	people
/ləmbo/, /ləmbi/	/atit ^h i/	/mehman/	/mehman/	/ləmba/	/ləmba/	53	tall
/pəɽla/	/pəɽla/	/pətra/	/pəɽla/	/pəɽlo/	/patla/	54	lean
/moɽa/	/moɽa/	/moɽa/	/moɽi/	/cəɽbi/	/mota/	55	fat
/guŋga/, /guŋgi/	/gəŋga/	/bəhra/	/na bəl pane vāla/	/guŋga/	/beokuph/	56	dumb
/natedarə/	/ristedar/	/ristedar/	/ristedar/	/natedar/	/k ^h andan/	57	relatives
/bəɽi bəhen/	/bəhen/	/bəɽi bəhen/	/baɽi: bəhen/, /c ^h o:ɽi: bəhen/	/jiʃi/	/vāhin/	58	sister/elder(e.)/yo unger(y.)
/nənəd/	/nənənd/	/nənəd/	/nənəd/	/nənd/	/b ^h abi/	59	sister-in-law
/beɽa/	/beɽa/	/beɽa/	/biɽwa:/	/beɽa/	/shahajade/	60	son
/bid ^h va/	/bid ^h ba/	/vid ^h va/	/vidwa:/	/bid ^h va/	/beva/	61	widow
/pəɽni/	/pəɽni/	/pəɽni/	/mehra:ru:/	/əɽəs/	/begəm/	62	wife
/ɔoɽət/	/oɽət/	/ɔɽət/	/mehraru/	/lugai/	/begəm/	63	woman
III. Animals, Birds, etc.							
/ciɽi/	/ciɽi/	/ciɽi/	/ciɽti/	/ciɽiā/	/ciɽi/	64	ant
/ciɽa/	/ciɽja/	/pənc ^h i/	/pəkc ^h i/	/ciɽəia/	/pəcc ^h i/	65	bird
/billi/	/billi/	/billi/	/bilʃar/	/bələia/	/billi/	66	cat
/nəh/	/nak ^h un/	/nak ^h un/	/na:h/	/neo/	/pəjer ke pəŋje/	67	claw
/mɽrga/	/murga/	/murga/	/murga/	/murga/	/murga/	68	cock
/gəia/	/gaj/	/gaj/	/gəija/	/gəɽ/	/gai/	69	cow
/kēkɽa/	/kekəra/	/kekəra/	/kēkɽa/	/kēkɽa/	/kekra/	70	crab
/kəɽta/	/kəɽta/	/kəɽta/	/kəɽkəɽ/	/kotta/	/kutta/	71	dog
/əndə/	/aŋdə/	/aŋdə/	/əndə/	/əndə/	/andə/	72	egg
/pəŋk ^h o/	/pənk ^h /	/pənk ^h /	/pāk ^h /	/pəŋk ^h /	/pəŋk ^h o/	73	feather

Sl.No.	English Gloss	Hindi	Awadhi	Dehati	Giharo	Gurumukhi	Khariboli
74	fish	/mæc ^h li/	/mæc ^h əri/	/mæc ^h ri/	/mæc ^h əri/	/mac ^h li/	/mæc ^h li/
75	hen	/mɔrgi/	/mac ^h i/	/mɔrga/	/mɔrgi/	/kukƏri/	/mac ^h i/
76	fox	/lomɽi/	/loməɽi/	/lok ^h ri/	/loməɽi/	/lombdɽi/	/loməɽ/
77	goat	/bəkra/	/bəkəri/	/bəkri/	/bəkra/	/bakri/	/bəkra/
78	peacock	/mor/	—	/bəkət/	/mor/	/mor/	/giris/
79	guts	/āt/	—	—	/āt/	/atƏri/	/āt/
80	horn	/siŋ/	/siŋ/	/sĩg ^h /	/siŋg ^h /	/ʃĩŋ/	/si:ŋg ^h /
81	horse	/g ^h oɽa/	/g ^h oɽa/	/g ^h oɽa/	/g ^h oɽa/	/koɽa/	/g ^h o:ɽa/
82	lion	/ʃer/	/ser/	/ser/	/seru/	/c ^h er/	/se:r/
83	louse	/ʃũ/	/d ^h il/	/ʃəa/	/ʃũə/	/ʃɔ/	/d ^h i:l/
84	monkey	/bəndər/	/banər/	/bāndər/	/bəndəru/	/bāndər/	/banər/
85	nest	/g ^h ōsla/	/g ^h osəla/	/g ^h ōsla/	/g ^h ōsla/	/gōnsa/	/g ^h osla/
86	tail	/pũc ^h /	/puc ^h /	/pũc ^h /	/pũc ^h /	/pũʃi/	/po:c ^h /
87	tiger	/baɔg ^h /	/baɔg ^h /	/ʃer/	/ser/	/baɔgi/	/ser/
88	tortoise	/kæc ^h əa/	/kac ^h ua/	/kæc ^h əa/	/kæc ^h uo/	/kəʃuua/	/kecuha/
89	wing	/pəŋk ^h /	/pəŋk ^h /	/pənk ^h /	/pəŋk ^h /	/pāk ^h i/	/pəŋk ^h /
IV. Body parts, Bodily functions and conditions, etc.							
90	body	/ʃərɪr/	/sərir/	/sərir/	/sərir/	/ʃƏrir/	/sərir/
91	back	/piɽ ^h /	/piɽ ^h /	/pi:ɽ ^h /	/piɽ ^h /	/pĩɽ ^h /	/piɽ ^h /
92	chin	/t ^h oɽi/	—	/d ^h ōɽ ^h i/	/t ^h oɽi/	/tɔdɽi/	—
93	blood	/k ^h un/	/k ^h un/	/k ^h ɔn/	/k ^h unu/	/k ^h ɔn/	/k ^h un/
95	bone	/həɔdɽi/	/həɔdɽi/	/həɔdɽi/	/həɔdɽi/	/həɔɽi/	/həɔdɽi/
96	finger	/ɔŋgli/	/aŋguri/	/əŋri/	/əŋguri/	/uŋgli/	/əŋguɽ ^h a/
97	chest	/c ^h ati/	/c ^h ati/	/c ^h ātɪ/	/c ^h ati/	/c ^h ati/	/c ^h ati/
98	ear	/kan/	/kan/	/kan/	/kan/	/kan/	/kan/
99	eye	/āk ^h /	/āk ^h /	/āk ^h /	/ank ^h i/	/ak ^h i/	/āk ^h /

Mainpuri	Malham	Malyani	Pratapgarhi	Rathodi	Urtia	Sl.No.	English Gloss
/mæc ^h əɾɪa/	/mæc ^h li/	/mæc ^h li/	/mæc ^h li/	/mæc ^h li/	/mæc ^h lijã/	74	fish
/mɔrgi/	/mæk ^h i/	/mɔrgi/	/murgi/	/mac ^h i/	/murga/	75	hen
/lomɽi/	/lomɽi/	/lomɽi/	/lo:mɽi:/	/lomɽi/	/lomɽijã/	76	fox
/bəkəɾɪa/	/bəkri/	/bəkɽi/	/bəkri/	/bukra/	/bakri/	77	goat
/mor/	/mor/	/mor/	/mor/	/pɔʃ ^h ar/	/mor/	78	peacock
/ãte/	/ãt/	/ãt/	/ãt/	/ãk/	/himmat/	79	guts
/sing ^h /	/sing/	/sing/	/siŋ/	/siŋ/	/hɔrn/	80	horn
/g ^h oɾa/	/g ^h oɾa/	/g ^h oɾa/	/g ^h oɾa/	/g ^h oɾa/	/g ^h oɾa/	81	horse
/ser/	/ʃer/	/ʃer/	/ʃɛr/	/se:ɾ/	/ʃer/	82	lion
/d̪iŋəɾə/	/ʃũ/	/ʃũ/	/ʃɜ/	/ʃũa/	/d̪əulət ^h ana/	83	louse
/bəndər/	/bəndər/	/bəndər/	/banər/	/bəndra/	/bəndər/	84	monkey
/g ^h ɔsla/	/g ^h ɔsla/	/g ^h ɔsla/	/g ^h osla/	/g ^h osla/	/g ^h oʃla/	85	nest
/pũc ^h /	/pũc ^h /	/pũc ^h /	/puc ^h /	/pũc ^h /	/dum/	86	tail
/bag ^h /	/bag ^h /	/bag ^h /	/ʃɛr/	/ba:g ^h /	/ʃer/	87	tiger
/kæc ^h ɔa/	/kæc ^h ɔa/	/kæc ^h ɔa/	/kæcuha/	/kæc ^h ua/	/kæc ^h uua/	88	tortoise
/pəŋk ^h /	/pəŋk ^h /	/pəŋk ^h /	/pāk ^h a:/	/pəŋk ^h /	/d̪əjna/	89	wing
IV. Body parts, Bodily functions and conditions, etc.							
/səɾir/	/ʃəɾiɾ/	/səɾiɾ/	/de:h/	/səɾir/	/ʃəɾir/	90	body
/piɽ ^h /	/piɽ ^h /	/piɽ ^h /	/pi:ɽ ^h /	/piɽ ^h e/	/picua/	91	back
/ɽ ^h oɾi/	/ɽ ^h ɔɽɽi/	/ɽ ^h ɔɽɽi/	/ɽ ^h uɽɽi/	/ɽ ^h ori/		92	chin
/k ^h un/	/k ^h un/	/k ^h un/	/k ^h un/ mat ^h a	/k ^h un/	/ləhu/	93	blood
/həɽɽi/	/həɽɽi/	/həɽɽi/	/haɾ/	/həɽɽi/	/həɽɽijã/	95	bone
/əŋguri/	/ɔŋgli/	/aŋgɔli/	/aŋguri:/	/uŋgəɾia/	/p ^h iŋger/	96	finger
/sina/	/sina/	/c ^h atti/	/c ^h ati/	/sina/	/ʃina/	97	chest
/kan/	/kan/	/kan/	/ka:n/	/ka:n/	/kan/	98	ear
/ãk ^h /	/ãk ^h /	/ãk ^h /	/ak ^h /	/ak ^h i/	/ak ^h ẽ/	99	eye

Sl.No.	English Gloss	Hindi	Awadhi	Dehati	Giharo	Gurumukhi	Khariboli
100	face	/cɛhɛra/	/cehera/	/cehra/	/mõh/	/cehra/	/cehra/
101	fever	—	/buk ^h ar/	/bok ^h ar/	/bɔk ^h ar/	/buk ^h ar/	/buk ^h ar/
102	finger	/ɔŋgli/	/aŋguri/	/əŋri/	/əŋguri/	/uŋgli/	/əŋguɽ ^h a/
103	flesh	/mās/	/mas/	/goʃ/	/mas/	/masi/	/mas/
104	life	/ʃivən/	—	/ʃivən/	/ʃivən/	/ʃiwən/	—
105	hair	/bal/	/bar/	/bal/	/bar/	/val/	/cul/
106	hand	/hat ^h /	/bāja hat/	/hat ^h /	/hat ^h /	/hat ^h i/	/bāya hāt ^h /
107	head	/sər/	/muɽ/	/sər/	/sər/	/siri/	/kəpər/
108	heart	/dɪl/	/dɪl/	/cɔlha/	/mərmə/	/ride/	—
109	leg	/pɛr/	/pəjer/	/pɛr/	/godə/	/pɛri/	/pɛr/
110	lip	/ōɽ ^h /	/oɽ ^h /	/hōaɽ ^h /	/ōɽ ^h /	/hōɽ ^h /	/ōɽ ^h /
111	liver	/kəleʃa/	/kəleʃa/	/ʃigər/	/kəreʃo/	/kəleʃa/	/kəleʃa/
112	lung	/p ^h ep ^h ɽa/	/p ^h ep ^h əɽa/	/p ^h ep ^h ra/	/p ^h ep ^h ro/	/p ^h ep ^h ɽa/	/p ^h ep ^h ɽa/
113	mouth	/mũh/	/muh/	/mu:h/	/mũh/	/mɔh/	/muhə/
114	neck	/gərdən/	/gəɽəji/	/gərdən/	/gərdən/	/təni/	/gərdən/
115	nose	/nak/	/nak/	/nak/	/nak/	/naki/	—
116	spine	/riɽ ki həɽɽi/	/ɽiɽ ka həɽɽi/	/riɽ ^h ki həɽɽi/	/riɽ ki həɽɽi/	/riɽ di həɽɽi/	/riɽ ki həɽɽi/
117	tongue	/ʃib ^h /	/ʃib ^h /	/ʃəban/	/ʃib/	/ʃip/	/ʃib ^h /
118	tooth	/dāt/	/dat/	/dāt/	/dātu/	/dāndi/	/dāt/
119	waist	/kəmər/	/kərihāj/	/kərɪhaō/	/kəməri/	/kəmari/	/kəmər/
V. Foods Drinks, Cooking and Utensils etc.							
120	flour	/aɽa/	—	/pisan/	/aɽo/	/aɽa/	—
121	bread	/roɽi/	—	/roɽi/	/capaɽi/	/roɽi/	—
122	milk	/dud ^h /	/dud ^h /	/dɔd ^h /	/dud ^h /	/dɔd/	/dud ^h /
123	salt	/nəmək/	/nun/	/lon/	/lon/	/lɔŋ/	/nəmək/
124	smoke	/d ^h ɔā/	/d ^h uija/	/d ^h ɔā/	/d ^h uvā/	/d ^h uva/	/d ^h ūa/
125	rice- uncooked(uc.)/cooked(c.)	/cavəl/	/caur/	/cavəl/	/cavɔr/	/coli/	/cavəl/

Mainpuri	Malham	Malyani	Pratapgarhi	Rathodi	Urtia	Sl.No.	English Gloss
/cehɐra/	/cehra/	/cehra/	/cehra:/	/mu:/	/ʃəklə/	100	face
/bɔkʰar/	/bɔkʰar/	/bɔkʰar/	/bɔkʰar/	/ʃɔr/	/bukhar/	101	fever
/əŋguri/	/əŋgli/	/aŋgɔli/	/aŋguri:/	/uŋgɐɾia/	/pʰiŋger/	102	finger
/gost/	/mās/	/mās/	/mās/	/mā:s/	/goʃtə/	103	flesh
/ʃivən/	/ʃivən/	/ʃivən/	/ʃi:vən/	/ʃivən/	/ləbo/	104	life
/bal/	/bal/	/bal/	/bar/	/ba:l/	/ʃər ke bal/	105	hair
/hatʰ/	/ha:tʰ/	/hatʰ/	/hatʰ/	/baeā hat/	/hath/	106	hand
/sir/	/matʰa/	/sir/	/sir/	/ser/	/sir/	107	head
/cɔlo/	/dɪl/	/hɪrdɛ/	/culha:/	/culo/	/pejzame/	108	heart
/pāo/	/pɛɾ/	/pao/	/go:ɾ/	/goɾo/	/zindigi/	109	leg
/otʰ/	/hōɾʰ/	/ot/	/otʰ/	/ō:t/	/hoth/	110	lip
/kəleʃa/	/kəleʃa/	/kəreʃa/	/ʃigar/	/ʃegəɾ/	/pejzame/	111	liver
/pʰepʰra/	/pʰepʰɾa/	/pʰepʰra/	/pʰepɾa/	/pʰepɾā/	/pəsuriʃā/	112	lung
/muhə/	/muh/	/mɔkʰ/	/mɔh/	/mu:/	/muh/	113	mouth
/gərdən/	/gəɾla/	/gərdən/	/gardan/	/gʰāɽi/	/gərdəne/	114	neck
/nak/	/nak/	/nak/	/nak/	/na:k/	/nak/	115	nose
/riɾ ki həɖɖi/	/ɾiɾʰ ki həɖɖi/	/ɾiɖʰ ki həɖɖi/	/riɾ ki həɖɖi/	/ɾiɾ ki həɖɖi/	/piɾ ki həɖɖijā/	116	spine
/ʃibʰ/	/ʃibʰ/	/ʃibʰ/	/ʃibʰ/	/ʃi:b/	/zəban/	117	tongue
/dāt/	/dāt/	/dāt/	/dat/	/dā:t/	/dāt/	118	tooth
/kəmər/	/kəmər/	/kəmər/	/kəmər/	/kəɾea/	/kəmər/	119	waist
V. Foods Drinks, Cooking and Utensils etc.							
/aɾa/	/aɾa/	/cun/	/aɾa/	—	/aɾa/	120	flour
/roɽi/	/pau roɽi/	/pāu roɽi/	/roɽi/	—	/pāo roɽi/	121	bread
/dudʰ/	/dudʰ/	/dɔdʰ/	/dudʰ/	/dudʰ/	/dudʰ/	122	milk
/nəmək/	/nəmək/	/nəŋ/	/nun/	/nu:n/	/nəmək/	123	salt
/dʰūa/	/dʰūa/	/dʰūva/	/dʰūa/	/dʰūa/	/dʰuā/	124	smoke
/cavər/	/cawəl/	/cavər/	/caur/	/cāɾ/	/cəvl/	125	rice- uncooked(uc.)/cooked(c.)

Sl.No.	English Gloss	Hindi	Awadhi	Dehati	Giharo	Gurumukhi	Khariboli
VI. Clothing, House, Parts of House etc.							
126	banian	/bəniʌn/	—	—	/bəniʌi/	/vesəʈa/	/bəniʌn/
127	cloth	/vəstrə/	/kəpʈa/	/kəpʈa/	/kəpʈə/	/kəpʈe/	/kəpʈa/
128	cotton	/rəsi/	—	—	/kəpas/	/kəpaha/	/rui/
129	sari	/saʈi/	—	/saʈi/	/sari/	/saʈi/	/saʈi/
130	shoe	/ʃuta/	/basuri/	/ʃəta/	/ʃuta/	/ʃuti/	/ju:ta/
131	frock	/kərti/	—	/pʰulo ka gəʃra/	/kurti/	/pərauka/	
132	loom	/kərgʰa/	—	—	/kərgʰə/	/luma/	
133	stick	/cʰəʈi/	/cəri/	/cʰəri/	/qəndi/	/cʰəʈi/	/cʰəʈi/
134	bed	/bistər/	—	—	/bistər/	/bisəʈəra/	/kʰaʈ/
135	door	/dərvaza/	/dərwaja/	/dərvaja/	/dʌrə/	/buva/	/dərvaja/
136	house	/gʰər/	/gʰər/	/məkan/	/gʰər/	/kər/	/gʰər/
137	roof	/cʰət/	/cʰət/	/cʰət/	/cʰat/	/cət/	/cʰət/
138	rope	/rəssi/	/rəsəʈi/	/rəssi/	/rəssi/	/rəssi/	/rəsəri/
139	wall	/divar/	/diwar/	/deval/	/dival/	/kāndi/	/divar/
140	kitchen	/rəsoigʰər/	/inar/	/rəsoi gʰər/	/rəsoigʰər/	/cala kəri/	
141	window	/kʰiʈki/	/kʰirki/	/kʰirki/	/kʰirki/	/kʰiʈki/	/kʰiʈki/
VII. Trees, Vegetables, Fruits and Flowers etc.							
142	bamboo	/bās/	—	—	/bās/	/bās/	/bās/
143	banana	/kela/	/kera/	/kela/	/kela/	/bəgica/	/kela/
144	banyan	/bərgəd/	—	—	/bərgət ka peʈ/	/bəʈəgəd/	/bərgəd/
145	brinjal	/bēṅgən/	/bəjgən/	/bʰāʈa/	/bēgən/	/bətāu/	/bəygan/
146	chilly	/mirc/	/mərca/	/mirc/	/mirc/	/mirca/	/mirca/
147	coconut	/narīl/	/narījəl/	/narījəl/	/narīl/	/narial/	/narījəl/
148	creeper	/ləta/	—	—	/ləta/	/ləta/	/ləta/
149	flower	/pʰul/	/pʰul/	/pʰul/	/pʰul/	/ pʰəli /	/pʰul/

Mainpuri	Malham	Malyani	Pratapgarhi	Rathodi	Urtia	Sl.No.	English Gloss
VI. Clothing, House, Parts of House etc.							
/bənijan/	/gəʃi/	/əʃi/	/gəŋʃi/	/bənian/	/gəŋji/	126	banian
/kəpɾa/	/kəpəɾa/	/lətta/	/kəpɾa/	/kapɾa/	/kəpɾe/	127	cloth
/rui/	/rui/	/rui/	/tula/	/kəpas/	/suti/	128	cotton
/sari/	/sari/	/saɾi/	/saɾi/	/plet/	/sari/	129	sari
/ʃuta/	/ʃuta/	/ʃətta/	/basurimurli:/	/basūɾi/	/ʃuta/	130	shoe
/kəɾti/	/pʰəɾak/	/pʰəɾak/	/pʰrək/	/pʰeɾāk/	/kamij/	131	frock
/bunai ka əqɖa/	/kəɾəgʰa/	/kəɾəgʰa/	/kərgʰa/	/kəɾha/	/sui/	132	loom
/cəɾi/	/cʰəɾi/	/ləkɾi/	/cʰəɾi/	/dəŋda/	/cʰəɾi/	133	stick
/bistər/	/bistəɾ/	/bistəɾ/	/bistər/	/bistər/	/bistr/	134	bed
/dəɾvaʃa/	/dəɾwaʃa/	/dəɾvaʃa/	/darva:ʃa:/	/doro/	/dəɾvaza/	135	door
/gʰər/	/gʰər/	/grih/	/gʰər/	/gʰəɾ/	/dəulətkʰana/	136	house
/cʰət/	/cʰət/	/cʰət/	/cʰət/	/ləɾaɾ/	/cʰətē/	137	roof
/jəɾia/	/rəssi/	/rəssi/	/rəssi/	/germa/	/rəʃfi/	138	rope
/divar/	/dibar/	/divar/	/di:va:r/	/divar/	/divar/	139	wall
/rəsoigʰər/	/rəsoi/	/rəsoi/	/rəsoi gʰər/	/kua/	/bəvərcikhana/	140	kitchen
/kʰɪɾkia/	/kʰɪɾki/	/kʰɪɾki/	/ʃəŋglā:/	/keuəɾia/	/kʰɪrkijā/	141	window
VII. Trees, Vegetables, Fruits and Flowers etc.							
/bās/	/bās/	/bās/	/bās/		/bās/	142	bamboo
/kela/	/kela/	/kela/	/kela/	/kela/	/kela/	143	banana
/bərgət ka peɾ/	/sem/	/vəɾt/	/bərgəd/		/cal/	144	banyan
/beɾa/	/bəgən/	/bəĩgən/	/bʰaɾa/	/bʰaɾa/	/bəgən/	145	brinjal
/mɪrci/	/mɪrc/	/mɪrəc/	/mirci/	/merc/	/lalmirc/	146	chilly
/naɾiəl/	/naɾjəl/	/naɾjəl/	/naɾiyəl/	/naɾiel/	/naɾiel/	147	coconut
/ləta/	/ləta/	/ləta/	/ləta/	/bʰil/	/ləta/	148	creeper
/pʰul/	/pʰəl/	/pʰul/	/pʰul/	/genda/	/phul/	149	flower

Sl.No.	English Gloss	Hindi	Awadhi	Dehati	Giharo	Gurumukhi	Khariboli
150	fruit	/pʰəl/	/pʰəl/	/pʰəl/	/pʰəl/	/pʰəli/	/pʰəl/
151	garden	/bəgɪca/	/bəgəɪca/	/baɡ/	/bəgɪca/	/bəgɪca/	/bəgəɪca/
152	grass	/gʰas/	/gʰas/	/gʰas/	/gʰas/	/ka/	/gʰās/
153	guava	/əmrəd/	/amrud/	—	/amarud/	/amərud/	/amrud/
154	cucumber	/kʰira/	—	/kʰira/	/kəkəɽi/	/kira/	/kʰi:ra/
155	leaf	/pətta/	/pətta/	/pətta/	/pata/	/pətta/	/pətta/
156	lotus	/kəməl/	—	/kəməl/	/kəməl ka pʰul/	/kəməl/	/kumud/
157	mango	/am/	/am/	/am/	/am/	/am/	/am/
158	paddy	/dʰan/	/dʰan/	/dʰan/	/dʰan/	/cona/	/dʰan/
159	plough	/həl/	/hər/	/hər/	/pʰal/	/həli/	/həro/
160	potato	/alu/	/alu/	/alu/	/alu/	/alu/	/alu:/
161	root	/ʃər/	/ʃər/	/ʃər/	/ʃər/	/ʃəɖi/	/ʃərə/
162	sweet	/miṭʰa/	—	—	/gʊṭ/	/miṭʰa/	/mi:ṭʰa/
163	tree	/peṭ/	/peṭ/	/pēr/	/peṭ/	/peṭ/	/peṭ/
164	vegetable	/səbzi/	/tərkari/	/tərkari/	/səbji/	/səbji/	/səbji/
165	wheel	/cəkka/	—	—	/pəhiə/	/pəhia/	/pəhiya/
166	gum	/gond/	—	—	/gond/	-	/gōd/
VIII. Profession and Professional equipments etc.							
167	labourer	/məɟdur/	/məddur/	/məɟər/	/məɟdur/	/mənɟur/	/məɟdur/
168	barber	/nai/	—	/nəɔva/	/nai/	/naɟi/	
169	carpenter	/bəṭʰəi/	/daji/	/bəṭʰəi/	/bəṭʰəi/	/baɽi/	
170	mason	/ɾaɟmistri/	/məhaɟən/	/mistri/	/ɾaɟmistri/	//	
171	net	/ɟal/	—	—	/ɟar/	/ɟal/	/ɟal/
172	potter	/kəmhər/	/kuhar/	/kəmhər/	/kəmaro/	/kumar/	/bərtən bənanewala/
173	weaver	/bənkar/	/ɟulhar/	/ɟolah/	/ɟulaho/	/ɟulaha/	/ɟolha/
174	bullockcart	/bəlgaɽi/	/bəl gaɽi/	/bəl gaɽi/	/bəl gaɽi/	/bolda vali gaɖi/	/bəlgaɽi/
175	bus	/bəs/	/bas/	/bəs/	/bas/	/bəsi/	/bəs/

Mainpuri	Malham	Malyani	Pratapgarhi	Rathodi	Urtia	Sl.No.	English Gloss
/pʰəl/	/pʰəl/	/pʰəl/	/pʰəl/	/pʰəl/	/pʰəl/	150	fruit
/bəgicə/	/bəgicə/	/bəg/	/bəːg/	/bəgia/	/bəg/	151	garden
/gʰas/	/gʰas/	/gʰas/	/ghaːs/	/caɽɔ/	/gʰaʃ/	152	grass
/səpri/	/aməɾɔd/	/aməɾɔd/	/əmɾut/	/bihi/	/əmɾut/	153	guava
/kʰira/	/kʰira/	/kʰira/	/kʰiːra/	/kʰiɾa kəkɾi/	X	154	cucumber
/pətta/	/pətta/	/pətta/	/pati/	/pətta/	/pətte/	155	leaf
/kəməɔdɪn/	/kəməɔ/	/kəməɔ/	/kəməɔ/	/kəməɔ/	/kəməɔ ka pʰul/	156	lotus
/am/	/am/	/am/	/am/	/aːm/	/am/	157	mango
/dʰan/	/dʰan/	/dʰan/	/dʰan/	/dʰan/	/dʰan/	158	paddy
/həɾ/	/həl/	/həl/	/hal/	/həl/	/hal/	159	plough
/alu/	/alu/	/alu/	/alu/	/alu/	/alu/	160	potato
/ʃəɽ/	/ʃəɽ/	/ʃəɽ/	/ʃəɽ/	/aɾi/	/ʃəɽ/	161	root
/miɽʰai/	/miɽʰai/	/miɽʰai/	/miɽʰai/	/miɽʰai/	/miɽʰa/	162	sweet
/peɽ/	/peɽ/	/peɽ/	/peɽ/	/peɽ/	/ped/	163	tree
/səbʃi/	/səbʃi/	/səbʃi/	/tərkari/	/tərkari/	/səbzi/	164	vegetable
/pəhiɾ/	/pəhiɾ/	/pəhiɾ/	/pəhiɾ/	/pəia/	/cakka/	165	wheel
/gond/	/gōd/	/gōd/	/gōd/	/gond/	/gum/	166	gum
VIII. Profession and Professional equipments etc.							
/məɟdur/	/məɟdur/	/məɟdur/	/məɟdɔɾ/	/mistiri/	/məzdur/	167	labourer
/naɾ/	/nai/	/nai/	/nai/	/nəuja/	/həɟam/	168	barber
/bəɽʰəi/	/bəɽʰəi/	/bəɽʰəi/	/bəɽʰəi/	/dai/	/bərae/	169	carpenter
/mistiri/	/mestəɾ/	/raʃ mistri/	/raʃmistri/	/sahoo/	/raʃmistiri/	170	mason
/ʃal /	/ʃal/	/ʃal/	/ʃa/	/ʃal/	/jal/	171	net
/kəmhəɾ/	/kəmhəɾ/	/kohar/	/bartan banaːneː vaːlaː/	/komhəɾ/	/kumhəɾ/	172	potter
/ʃəlahə/	/ʃəlahə/	/ʃəraha/	/ʃəlahə/	/ʃəlahə/	/ansari/	173	weaver
/bel gaɾi/	/bel gaɾi/	/bel gaɾi/	/bel gaɾi/	/belgaɾi/	/gari/	174	bullockcart
/bəɾ/	/bəɾ/	/bəɾ/	/bəɾ/	/məɽɽ/	/bəɽ/	175	bus

Sl.No.	English Gloss	Hindi	Awadhi	Dehati	Giharo	Gurumukhi	Khariboli
IX. Sense perception, Emotion and temperament etc.							
176	bitter	/kəɽva/	/tik ^h a/	/kəɽva/	/kəɽvo/	/tik ^h a/	/ti:k ^h a/
177	short	/c ^h oɽa/	—	/naɽək ^h /	/naɽo/	/coɽa/	
178	blind	/ənd ^h a/	/ənd ^h a/	/ādhər/	/ənd ^h o/	/anna/	/ənd ^h a/
179	blue	/nila/	/nila/	/nila/	/nila/	/nila/	/nila/
180	bright	/ɔɽvəl/	/cəmkila/	/cəmkila/	/cəmkila/	/cəmkila/	/cəmkila/
181	brown	/b ^h ura/	/b ^h uwər/	/b ^h ura rəŋ/	/b ^h ura/	/pɔra rəŋ/	/d ^h ɔrɔ rəŋ/
182	coldness	/t ^h əndək/	—	—	/t ^h ənda/	/t ^h ənd/	/t ^h ənd/
183	green	/həra/	/hərihər/	/hərijər/	/həra/	/həra/	/həra/
184	hot	/gəɾəm/	/gəɾəm/	/gəɾəm/	/gəɾəm/	/gəɾəm/	/gəɾəm/
185	light	/həlka/	/halluk/	/həlka/	/həlko/	/canəni/	/həlka/
186	red	/lal/	/lal/	/lal/	/lal/	/lal/	/lal/
187	sour	/k ^h əɽa/	/k ^h əɽa/	/k ^h ənta/	/k ^h əɽo/	/k ^h əɽa/	/k ^h əɽa/
188	violet	/bɛŋgəni/	—	—	/bɛŋgni/	/ɟaməni/	/bɛŋgəni/
189	white	/səfed/	/səp ^h ed/	/ɔɽvəl/	/səfed/	/ciɽa/	/səp ^h e:d/
190	yellow	/pila/	/pijər/	/pijər/	/pila/	/pila/	/pila/
191	hungry	/b ^h uk ^h a/	/b ^h uk ^h a/	/b ^h ūk ^h a/	/b ^h ukiro/	/pɔk ^h i/	/b ^h uk ^h a/
192	tall	/ləmba/	/pjər/	/ləmba/	/ləmbə/	/ləmba/	
193	pain	/dərd/	/dərd/	/dərd/	/dərd/	/pədni/	/dərd/
194	TRUE	/səc/	/səccaji/	/səccə/	/səc/	/səc/	/səc/
195	taste	/svad/	—	/sovad ^h /	/səvad/	/suvadi/	/svad/
X. Education							
196	ink	/sjahi/	/seahi/	/sejahi/	/sjahi/	/c ^h ɪɽaji/	/sjahi/
197	school	/vidjaləj/	/iskul/	/biddejalə/	/vidjaləj/	/skɔli/	/iskul/
198	student	/c ^h atrə/	/c ^h atra/	/c ^h atrə/	/c ^h atrə/	/c ^h atra/	/c ^h atra/
199	teacher	/ɟikɟək/	/sic ^h ək/	/sic ^h ək/	/mastəru/	/c ^h icəki/	/c ^h ic ^h ək/

Mainpuri	Malham	Malyani	Pratapgarhi	Rathodi	Urtia	Sl.No.	English Gloss
IX. Sense perception, Emotion and temperament etc.							
/teʃ/	/tikʰa/	/tikʰa/	/ti:ta/	/kaʃua/	/tik/	176	bitter
/bɔona/	/cʰoʈa/	/cʰoʈa/	/cʰoʈa/		/tʰoʈa/	177	short
/əndʰa/	/andʰa/	/andʰa/	/əndʰa/	/əndʰa/	/əndʰa/	178	blind
/nila/	/nila/	/nila/	/nila/	/nila/	/nila/	179	blue
/cəmkila/	/cəmkila/	/cəmkila/	/cəmkila/	/cəmkila/	/cəmkila/	180	bright
/bʰura/	/bʰura/	/bʰura rəŋg/	/bʰura rəŋ/	/səpʰet rāg/	/bhura/	181	brown
/sərɖi/	/tʰɖɖa/	/tʰəŋɖ/	/tʰəŋɖa/	/tʰəŋɖa/	/sitəla/	182	coldness
/həra/	/həra/	/həra/	/həra/	/həra/	/həra/	183	green
/tikʰa/	/gəʀəʀm/	/gəʀəʀm/	/garam/	/tikʰo/	/gəʀəʀm/	184	hot
/həlka/	/həlka/	/həlka/	/həlukuʃa:la:/	/həlko/	/ɖʰolək/	185	light
/lal/	/lal/	/lal/	/lal/	/lal/	/ʃurəkʰ/	186	red
/kʰəʈʈa/	/kʰəʈʈa/	/kʰəʈʈa/	/kʰəʈʈa/	/kʰəʈʈa/	/khəʈʈa/	187	sour
/bəʈaʃa/	/bəgəʀni/	/bəgəʀni/	/bəgəʀni/	/miʈʰai/	/baigni/	188	violet
/səfed/	/səpʰed/	/səpʰed/	/səpʰed/	/guʈia/	/səpʰed/	189	white
/pila/	/pila/	/pila/	/pi:la/	/peʈo/	/pila/	190	yellow
/bʰukʰo/	/bʰukʰa/	/bʰukʰa/	/bukʰa:n ba:/	/bʰoʃka hɔaa/	/bʰukʰ/	191	hungry
/ləmbo/	/ləmba/	/ləmba/	/lamba/	/pear/		192	tall
/piʈa/	/dəʀd/	/dəʀəd/	/dəʀd/	/do:kʰ/	/dəʀd/	193	pain
/səc/	/səhi/	/səhi/	/səc/	/səcci/	/sac/	194	TRUE
/səvad/	/svad/	/svad/	/swad/	—	/svadə/	195	taste
X. Education							
/sɪahi/	/sɪāhi/	/sahi/	/siʃa:hi:/	/seahi/	/ʃjahi/	196	ink
/iskul/	/biddʰjalə/	/iskul/	/iskul/	/iskul/	/iskul/	197	school
/cʰatrə/	/cʰatr/	/cʰatr/	/vidyartʰi/	/catrə/	/cʰatra/	198	student
/sicʰək/	/sɪkʃək/	/grəʃi/	/əɖʰyapək/	/əɖʰheapək/	/ʃiʃʃək/	199	teacher

Sl.No.	English Gloss	Hindi	Awadhi	Dehati	Giharo	Gurumukhi	Khariboli
XI. War & Law							
200	bullet	/goli/	/goli/	/goli/	/goli/	/goli/	/goli/
201	drumtrumpet	/d̪ʰol/	—	/d̪ʰol/	/d̪ʰol/	/t̪ol/	/d̪ʰol/
202	enemy	/ʃətr̩/	/dusmən/	/ď̪smən/	/dusmən/	/duʃmən/	/dusmən/
203	victory	/viʃəj/	—	/ʃit/ /biʃə/	/biʃəj/	/ʃit/	/ji:t/
204	divorce	/tələk/	/tələk/	/tələk/	/cʰuɾav/	/tələk/	/tələk/
205	theft	/cori/	/cori/	/cori/	/cori/	/cori/	/cori/
XII. Religion, Entertainment and Metals etc.							
206	festival	/ɔtsəv/ /tjohar/	/tehowar/	/tevhər/	/tjohar/	/təhar̩/	/puʃa/
207	garland	/mala/	/mala/	/mala/	/mala/	/mala/	/mala/
208	heaven	/svərg/	/swərg/	/soərg/	/svərg/	/suvərg/	/svərg/
209	hell	/nəɾək/	—	—	/nəɾək/	/nəɾək/	/nəɾək/
210	worship	/arad̪ʰna/	/puʃag̪ʰər/	/p̪ʊʃa g̪ʰər/	/puʃa/	/bəg̪əti/	/puʃa g̪ʰər/
211	games	/kʰel/	/kʰel/	/kʰel/	/kʰel/	/kʰel/	/kʰel/
212	flute	/bās̪əri/	/basuri/	/bās̪uri/	/bās̪uri/	/bāns̪əri/	/bās̪uri/
213	brass	/pitəl/	/pitəri/	/pitəri/	/pitər/	/pitəl/	/pitəl/
214	gold	/sona/	/sona/	/sona/	/sono/	/sona/	/sona/
215	iron	/loha/	/loha/	/loha/	/loho /	/lova/	/loha/
216	lime	/cuna/	/cuna/	/č̪na/	/cuna/	/č̪na/	/cuna/
217	money	/p̪̌sa/	/rup̪̌a/	/rup̪̌əja/	/rup̪̌əja/	/pehe/	/rup̪̌əja/
218	silver	/candi/	/candi/	/cādi/	/cādi/	/cādi/	/cādi/
XIII. Numerals							
219	first	/p̪̌hela/	/p̪̌hila/	/p̪̌hila/	/p̪̌hila/	/p̪̌hila/	/p̪̌hila/
220	second	/dusra/	/duš̪ra/	/ď̪ť̪je/	/dusra/	/duʃa/	/dusra/
221	third	/ť̪sra/	/ť̪š̪ra/	/ť̪sra/	/ť̪sra/	/tiʃa/	/ť̪sra/
222	one	/ek/	/ik/	/ek/	/ek/	/ek/	/ek/

Mainpuri	Malham	Malyani	Pratapgarhi	Rathodi	Urtia	Sl.No.	English Gloss
XI. War & Law							
/goli/	/goli/	/gori/	/go:li:/	/goli/	/goli/	200	bullet
/dʰol /	/dʰol/	/dʰol/	/dʰolək/	/badʒe/	/dʰolək/	201	drumtrumpet
/dʊsmən/	/dʊsmən/	/dʊsmən/	/dusmən/	/bæɽi/	/duɽmən/	202	enemy
/ʒit/	/ʒit/	/ʒit/	/ji:t/	not available	/biʒəj/	203	victory
/tələk/	/tələk/	/tələk/	/tələkʰ/	/talək/	/talək/	204	divorce
/cori/	/cori/	/cəkari/	/co:ri:/	/coɽi/	/kisi ciz na curana/	205	theft
XII. Religion, Entertainment and Metals etc.							
/puʒa/	/utəsəv/	/puʒa/	/pu:ʒa:/	/teoha:r/	/puʒa kərna/	206	festival
/mala/	/mala/	/mala/	/ma:la:/	/mala/	/gəle ke har/	207	garland
/soarg/	/svərg/	/svərg/	/svərg/	/sərg/	/svərgə/	208	heaven
/nərek/	/nəɾək/	/nəɾək/	/nərekʰ/	/nərek/	/nərek/	209	hell
/puʒa/	/puʒa/	/puʒa/	/pəʒa/	/puʒa kəɾlo/	/puʒa/	210	worship
/kʰel/	/kʰel/	/kʰel/	/kʰel/	/kʰel kud/	/kʰel kud/	211	games
/bāsuri/	/basəri/	/bāsəri/	/mərilibasuri/	/basūɽi/	/murli/	212	flute
/pitəl/	/pitəl/	/pittəl/	/pi:təl/	/pitəl/	/pitəl/	213	brass
/səno/	/sona/	/sona/	/sona/	/sono/	/ʃona/	214	gold
/loha/	/loha/	/loha/	/loha/	/loho/	/loha/	215	iron
/cuna/	/cuna/	/cuŋa/	/cuna/	/cuna/	/cuna/	216	lime
/pesa/	/ropija/	/rəpija/	/rupiʒa:/	/pæsa/	/rupəj/ /pəjʃe/	217	money
/candi/	/cādi/	/candi/	/ca:ndi:/	/candi/	/candi/	218	silver
XIII. Numerals							
/pəhelo/	/pəhela/	/pəhela/	/pehla:/	/pəhela/	/pəhela/	219	first
/dusro/	/dusra/	/dusra/	/dusra/	/dusra/	/dusra/	220	second
/tisro/	/tisra/	/tisra/	/ti:sra:/	/tisra/	/tisra/	221	third
/ek/	/ekʰ/	/ek/	/ek/	/ik/	/ek/	222	one

Sl.No.	English Gloss	Hindi	Awadhi	Dehati	Giharo	Gurumukhi	Khariboli
223	two	/do/	/du/	/dɔi/	/do/	/do/	/do/
224	three	/tin/	/tin/	/tin/	/tin/	/tɪni/	/tin/
225	four	/car/	/car/	/carɪ/	/car/	/car/	/car/
226	five	/pāc/	/pāc/	/pāc/	/pāc/	/pāc/	/pāc/
227	six	/c ^h əh/	/c ^h e/	/c ^h e/	/c ^h ɛ/	/c ^h e/	/c ^h ɛj/
228	seven	/sat/	/sat/	/sat/	/sat/	/sat/	/sat/
229	eight	/aɪ ^h /	/aɪ/	/aɪ ^h /	/aɪ ^h /	/aɪ ^h i/	/aɪ/
230	nine	/no/	/noʊ/	/no/	/noʊ/	/no/	/noʊ/
231	ten	/dəs/	/dəs/	/dəs/	/dəs/	/dɐh/	/dəs/
232	sixteen	/soləh/	/sola/	/soləh/	/solə/	/sola/	/sola/
233	twenty	/bis/	/bis/	/bi:s/	/bis/	/bi/	/bis/
234	forty	/calis/	—	/cəlis/	/calis/	/cali/	/calis/
XIV. physical activities verbs etc.							
235	bind	/bādhna/	/bādhna/	/bādhna/	/bandhɪbo/	/bāndna/	/bādhna/
236	blow	/p ^h ūk marna /	/p ^h uka/	/p ^h ukna/	/p ^h ūkɪbo/	/p ^h ukna/	/p ^h ūkna/
237	break(stick, pot, etc.)	/toɾna/	/toɾa/	/torna/	/toɾɪbo/, /p ^h oɾɪbo/	/toɾna/	/toɾna/
238	burn	/ʃəlaɳa/	/ag lagawa/	/ag ʃəlna/	/ʃəlaɳbo/	/ag laɳi/	/ʃəlaɳa/
239	carry(onhead, inhand, onshoulder)	/d ^h ona/	/d ^h oa/	/d ^h ona/, /səɾ pəɾ ladna/	/d ^h ojbo/, /moɳo pəɾ ladibo/	/sir pe laɳna/	/d ^h ona/
240	catch(chase animal, something thrown)	/pəkəɾna/	/p ^h asawa/	/p ^h āsna/, /pəkəɾna/	/pəkəɾɪbo/	/p ^h asəna/	/p ^h āsna/
241	clean	/saf kəɳna/	/sap kəɾa/	/sap ^h kəɳna/	/saf kəɾɪbo/	/sap ^h kəɳna/	/sap ^h kəɳna/
242	do(non-specificverb)	/kəɳna/	/kəɳna/	/kəɳna/	/kəɾɪbo/	/kəɳna/	/kəɳna/
243	fall down	/gɪɾna/		/gɪɾna/	/gɪɾɪbo/	/dɪgna/	/gɪɾna/
244	to float	/təɾna/	/bəh ʃava/	/bəh ʃana/	/bahɪbo/	//	/bəheʃana/
245	to flow	/bəhəna/	/bəh ʃaba/	/bəhna/	/bəh ʃaɪbo/	/boɳa/	/bəhəna/
246	hit	/marna/	/marna/	/marna/	/maɾɪbo/	/səɪ ləgəɳa/	/marna/
247	hold	/pəkəɾna/	/pəkəɾla/	/pəkəɾna/	/pəkəɾɪbo/	/pəkəɳna/	/pəkəɾna/

Mainpuri	Malham	Malyani	Pratapgarhi	Rathodi	Urtia	Sl.No.	English Gloss
/do/	/do/	/do/	/do:/	/do/	/do/	223	two
/tin/	/tin/	/tin/	/tin/	/tin/	/tin/	224	three
/car/	/car/	/car/	/car/	/car/	/car/	225	four
/pāc/	/pāc/	/pāc/	/pāc/	/pāc/	/pac/	226	five
/c ^h ε/	/tʃ ^h ε/	/c ^h ε/	/c ^h ə/	/cə/	/c ^h ə/	227	six
/sat/	/sat/	/sat/	/sat/	/sat/	/sat/	228	seven
/aɫ ^h /	/aɫ ^h /	/aɫ ^h /	/aɫ ^h /	/a:ɫ/	/aɫ ^h /	229	eight
/no/	/no/	/no/	/no/	/nə/	/no/	230	nine
/dəs/	/dəs/	/dəs/	/dəs/	/dəs/	/dəs/	231	ten
/sola/	/soləh/	/soləh/	/sola/	/sola/	/sola/	232	sixteen
/bis/	/bis/	/bis/	/bis/	/bis/	/bis/	233	twenty
/calis/	/calis/	/calis/	/calis/	/calis/	/ccali f/	234	forty
XIV. physical activities verbs etc.							
/bādhna/	/band ^h na/	/bādhna/	/bad ^h na/	/bahandeo/	/bādhna/	235	bind
/p ^h ukna/	/p ^h ukna/	/p ^h ukna/	/p ^h ukna/	/p ^h ukna/	/phūkna/	236	blow
/toɾna/, /p ^h oɾna/	/torna/	/torna/	/c ^h ed kərnatoɾ dena/	/toɾna/	/torna/	237	break(stick,po t,etc.)
/ʃəlaana/	/ʃəliθna/	/ʃəlaana/	/ʃəlaana/	/aag ʃalana/	/jalana/	238	burn
/d ^h ojna/	/pəkəɾna/	/d ^h ona/	/meɾep lagəb/	/d ^h ona/ /seɾ pe lak ^h lo/	/ladna/ /le jana/	239	carry(onhead,i nhand,onshoul der)
/p ^h as lena/	/pəkəɾna/	/pəkəɾna/	/p ^h asna/	/pəkəɾleo/ /k ^h asna/	/p ^h asna/ /pəkəɾna/	240	catch(chasean dcatchananim al,somethingth rown)
/sapf kərna/	/sap ^h kərna/	/sap ^h kərna/	/səp ^h ai kərna/	/sap ^h ai kərna/	/ʃəfaji kərna/	241	clean
/kərna/	/kərna/	/kərna/	/kəɾ/	/kərna/	/kərna/	242	do(non- specificverb)
/giɾ ʃana/	/gɪrna/	/gɪrna/	/giɾəb/	/giɾna/	/gɪrna/	243	falldown
/beheana/	/tərna/	/tərna/	/bəh ʃana/	/beheʃao/	/bəɾ ^h zana/	244	tofloat
/bəh ʃana/	/bəhna/	/bəhna/	/bahna:/	/beheana/	/bəheana/	245	toflow
/mar ^h na/	/mar ^h na/	/mar ^h na/	/piɾna/	/mar ^h na/	/mar ^h na/	246	hit
/pəkəɾna/	/pəkəɾna/	/ʃəkəɾna/	/pəkɾəb/	/pəkəɾleo/	/pəkəɾna/	247	hold

Sl.No.	English Gloss	Hindi	Awadhi	Dehati	Giharo	Gurumukhi	Khariboli
248	lean(against something)	/ʃʰɔkna/	/ʃeka laɣawa/	/ʃika ləɣana/	/ʃika ləɣaibo/	/ʃʰɔkəŋa/	/ʃeka ləɣana/
249	lick	/caʈna/	/caʈla/	/caʈna/	/caʈibo/	/caʈəŋa/	/caʈna/
250	make	/bənaana/	/bənaɣda/	/bənaana/	/banaaibo/	/bəŋəŋa/	/bənaana/
251	mix	/mɪlana/	/milada/	/milana/	/milaibo/	/malavna/	/milana/
252	open(adoor, eyes, bag)	/kʰolna/	/kʰolda/	/kʰolna/	/bɛg kʰolibo/	/kʰolna/	/kʰolna/
253	pick	/lena/ /cəɳna/	/pʰul toɽa/	/pʰəl torna/	/uʈʰaibo/	/ʃev coɖna/	/pʰəl torna/
254	play	/kʰelna/	/kʰela/	/kʰelna/	/kʰelibo /	/kʰelna/	/kʰelna/
255	pull	/kʰɪcna/	/kʰica/	/kʰɪcna/	/kʰɪcibo/	/kʰicna/	/kʰɪcna/
256	push	/dʱəkɛlɪna/ /dʱəkka dena/	/dʱakela/	/dʱəkɛlɪna/	/dʱəkɛlibo/	/mərəmət kəɽna/	/dʱəkka dena/
257	put	/rəkʰna/	/rəkʰa/	—	/rəkʰibo/	/rəkʰəŋa/	/rəkʰna/
258	rub	/gʰɪsna/	/miʈawa/	/meʈana/	/miʈaibo/	/miʈana/	/miʈana/
259	sell	/becna/	/beca/	/becna/	/bēcibo/	/vecna/	/becna/
260	shut	/bənd kəɽna/	/bəndʰ kəɽa/	/bəndʰ kəɽna/	/bəndʰ kəɽibo/	/bənd kəɽəŋa/	/bənd kəɽna/
261	sink	/dʱubna/	/dʱubəna/	/dʱubna/	/dʱubajibo/	/dʱəbəŋa/	/buɽna/
262	sprinkle	/cʰiʈəkna/	/cʰiʈəkəna/	/cʰiʈna/	/cʰiʈaibo/	/nicodəŋa/	/cʰiʈəkna/
263	squeeze	/nicoɽna/	/nicoɽa/	/nicoɽna/	/nicoɽibo/	/pʰicəno/	/nicoɽna/
264	spit	/tʰɔkna/	/tʰukəna/	/tʰūkna/	/tʰukibo/	/tʰukəŋa/	/tʰukna/
265	serve	/pəɾosna/	/pʰul ʃana/	/pəɾsis/	/kʰana pəɾosibo/	/roʈi bəŋani/	/pʰul ʃana/
266	tear	/pʰaɽna/	/pʰaɽna/	/pʰarna/	/pʰaɽibo/	/atʰəru/	/āsu/
267	throw	/pʰɛkna/	/pʰeka/	/pʰɛkna/	/pʰɛkibo/	/pʰɛkna/	/pʰekna/
268	wash	/dʱona/	/dʱona/	/dʱona/	/dʱoibo /	/dʱona/	/dʱona/
269	wipe	/pōcʰna/	/pocʰa/	/pōcʰna/	/pōcʰibo/	/pūŋna/	/pocʰna/
270	work	/kam kəɽna/	/kam kəɽa/	/kam kəɽna/	/kam kaɽibo/	/kam korna/	/kam kəɽna/
XV. Instrument Verbs							
271	cut	/kaʈna/	/kəpɽa kaʈa/	/kaʈna/	/kaʈibo/	/ʃɔɽkʰe kaʈni/	(/kaɽa/) /kaʈna/
272	dig(digup)	/kʰodna/	/gəɖdʱa kʰodʰa/	/kʰodna/	/gəɖdʱa kʰodibo/	/gəɖdʱa kʰodna/	(/gəɖdʱa/) /kʰodna/

Mainpuri	Malham	Malyani	Pratapgarhi	Rathodi	Urtia	Sl.No.	English Gloss
/tek ləgana/	/tjikana/	/tjikana/	/tek lagana/	/tekləgadeo/	/jhūkna/	248	lean(againstso mething)
/caṭna/	/caṭna/	/caṭna/	/catna/	/caṭlo/	/caṭna/	249	lick
/bənana/	/bənana/	/bənana/	/bənana/	/bənado/	/banana/	250	make
/mīlana/	/mīlana/	/mīlana/	/milana/	/meladeo/	/milana/	251	mix
/kʰol dena/	/kʰolna/	/kʰolna/	/kʰolna/	/kʰoldeo/	/kʰolna/	252	open(adoor,ey es,bag)
/ɔṭʰana/	/ɔṭʰana/	/ɔṭʰana/	/ʃamin sɛ ɔṭʰna/	/pʰəl toṛdo/	/lena/	253	pick
/kʰelna/	/kʰelna/	/kʰelna/	/kʰelna/	/kʰelleo/	/kʰelna/	254	play
/kʰicna/	/kʰicna/	/kʰicna/	/kʰicna/	/kʰiclo/	/kʰicaji kərna/	255	pull
/dʰəkka dena/	/dʰəkkelna/	/dʰəkka dena/	/mərmət kərna/	/dʰəkka laḡado/	/dʰəkkel dena/	256	push
/rəkʰna/	/rəkʰna/	/rəkʰəna/	/miṭa dena/	/rakʰleo/	/dʰalna/	257	put
/miṭana/	/miṭana/	/miṭana/	/miṭja:v/	/meṭadeo/	/miṭana/	258	rub
/becna/	/becna/	/becna/	/bec dena/	/bæcdeo/	/bec dena/	259	sell
/bənd kərna/	/bənd kərna/	/bənd kərna/	/bənd kərə deb/	/bənd kərdəo/	/bandʰ karna/	260	shut
/dubna/	/dubna/	/dubna/	/dʱɔbadeb/	/du:bna/	/bandʰ karna/	261	sink
/chitana/	/chitəkna/	/chitəkna/	/chitəb/	/chitlo/	/chirakna/	262	sprinkle
/nicorna/	/nicorna/	/nicorna/	/dabdeʃ/	/dəvalo/	/gar dena/	263	squeeze
/pʰuḡina/	/tʰukəna/	/tʰukna/	/tʰukna/	/pʰūkdeo/	/tʰukna/	264	spit
/kʰana dena/	/pərosəna/	/pərosəna/	/ga:tʰ kardiʃo:/	/pʰulo/	/dena/	265	serve
/pʰaṛna/	/pʰaṛna/	/pʰarna/	/ā:su:/	/pʰaṛdeo/	/tuṭna/	266	tear
/pʰēkna/	/pʰēkna/	/pʰēkna/	/pʰek dena/	/pʰækdeo/	/pʰek dena/	267	throw
/dʰona/	/dʰona/	/dʰona/	/dʰona/	/dʰoḡaṛo/	/dhona/	268	wash
/pucʰna/	/pōcʰna/	/pōcʰna/	/səpʰai kərna/	/pəhōcḡaṛo/	/pōchna/	269	wipe
/kam kərna/	/kam kərna/	/kam kərna/	/mehnət kərna/	/kam kərləo/	/kam kərna/	270	work
XV. Instrument Verbs							
/kaṭna/	/kaṭəna/	/kaṭna/	/kaṭna/	/kapṛa kaṭlo/	/kaṭna/	271	cut
/kʰodna/	/gəḡḡa kʰodna/	/gəḡḡa kʰodna/	/kʰodna/	/gaṇaba kʰodna/	/khodna/	272	dig(digup)

Sl.No.	English Gloss	Hindi	Awadhi	Dehati	Giharo	Gurumukhi	Khariboli
273	hunt	/ʃikar kərna/	/sikar kəra/	/ʃikar kərna/	/sɪkar kəɾibo/	/ʃikar korna/	/sikar kərna/
274	pound	/pisna/	/cuɽ kərna/	/cɔɾ kərna/	/cur kəɾibo/	/ pʰaɖna/	/ku:cna/
275	shoot	/goli mārna/	/goli mara/	/goli mārna/	/goli maribo/	/goli/	/bənduk cəlana/
276	split(wood)	/pʰaɽna/	/pʰaɽ dena/	/pʰarna/	/pʰaɽibo/	/ pʰaɖna/	/pʰarna/
XVI. Verbs of Fighting							
277	fight	/ləɽna/	/ləɽai kəra/	/ləɽai kərna/	/ləɽai kəɾibo/	/ləɖaʃi kəɾni/	/ləɽai kərna/
278	kill	/mārna/	/mar dia/	/mārna/	/maribo/	/mārna/	/mārna/
279	quarrel	/ʃʰəgɽa kərna/	/ʃʰəgɽa kəra/	/ʃʰəgɽa kərna/	/ʃʰəgɽa kəɾibo/	/gəla kuɽəna/	/ʃʰəgɽa kərna/
280	stab	/bʰəɖkna/	/gʰuserda/	/gʰuserna/		/cʰəra/	/bʰəɖkna/
XVII. Music Verbs							
281	beat(adrum)	/bəʃana/	/ɖʰol bəʃawa/	/ɖʰol bəʃana/	/pʰetibo/	/ɖolak baʃəna/	/ɖʰol bəʃana/
282	sing	/gana/	/gana gaɔa/	/gana gana/	/gana gaɟbo/	/gana gouəna/	/ga:na gana/
XVIII. Motion Verbs							
283	arrive	/ana/	/awa/	/ana/	/aɟbo/	/pəhəcəɳa/	/kisi ʃagəh pə ana/
284	ascend	/cəɽʰna/	/cəɽʰna/	/cəɽʰna/	/cəɽʰibo/	/caɖəna/	/cəɽna/
285	bring	/lana/	/lawā/	/lana/	/laɟbo/	/laɳa/	/lana/
286	climb	/cəɽʰna/	/cəɽʰna/	/cəɽna/	/cəɽʰibo/	/cəɖna/	/cəɽna/
287	come	/ana/	/ana/	/ana/	/aɟbo/	/aʃna/	/ana/
288	dance	/nacna/	/naca/	/nacna/	/nacibo/	/nacəna/	/nacna/
289	drag	/gʰəsitna/	/kʰica/	/kʰicna/	/gʰəsitibo/	/kəsitəna/	/kʰi:cna/
290	enter	/prəveʃ kərna/	/andəɾ awa/	/əndəɾ ʃana/	/gʰəsibo/	/dakʰəl kəro/	/gʰusna/
291	escape	/bəcna/	/bʰag ʃa/	/bʰag ʃana/	/bʰag ʃaɟbo/	/bʰagəna/	/bʰag ʃana/
292	fly(asabird)	/ɔɽna/	/uɽ ʃaba/	/ɔɽna/	/ɔɽibo/	/uɖna/	/uɽna/
293	get	/pāna/	/lela/	/milna/	/age bəɽibo/	/milne/	/milna/
294	getup	/ɔɽʰna/	/ʃag ʃaj/	/ʃagna/	/ʃaɟibo/	/ʃagəɳa/	/ʃagna/
295	give	/dena/	/dediha/	/dena/	/dibo/	/dino/	/dena/

Mainpuri	Malham	Malyani	Pratapgarhi	Rathodi	Urtia	Sl.No.	English Gloss
/sikaɾ kəɾna/	/sikaɾ kəɾna/	/akeɽ kəɾna/	/sikaɾkəɾna/	/sikaɾ kəɾna/	/sikaɾ kəɾna/	273	hunt
/cuɾ kəɾna/	/cuɾ kəɾna/	/cuɾ kəɾna/	/cəɾ kəɾna/	/cuɽ kaɽɽaɽo/	/mahin kəɾna/	274	pound
/cəɽana/	/goli maɾəna/	/goli maɾəna/	/maɾdeɽ/	/goli cəɽado/	/goli maɾna/	275	shoot
/pʰaɽna/	/pʰaɾna/	/pʰaɾna/	/ciɾəɽ/	/pʰükdeɽo/	/ciɾna/	276	split(wood)
XVI. Verbs of Fighting							
/ləɽai/	/ləɽai kəɾna/	/ləɽai kəɾna/	/laɽa:ʃi: kəɾna:/	/lərai kəɾbo/	/ləɾna/	277	fight
/maɾna/	/maɾna/	/maɾna/	/maɾna/	/maɽɽalo/	/maɾna/	278	kill
/ʃʰəɽa/	/ʃʰəɽa kəɾna/	/ʃʰəɽa kəɾna/	/ʃaɽa: kəɾna:/	/ləɾbo/	/ʃʰəɽa kəɾna/	279	quarrel
/gəɽeɽ deɽa/	/caɽu maɾəna/	/gʰuseɾna/	/gʰəɽseɾna/	/ghuseɾbo/	/ʋaɾ kəɾna/	280	stab
XVII. Music Verbs							
/piɽna/	/ɽʰol bəʃana/	/ɽʰol bəʃana/	/ɽʰol bəʃana/	/baʃi bəʃana/	/baʃana/	281	beat(adrum)
/gana/	/gana gana/	/gana gana/	/ga:na: ga:v/	/gana galo/	/gana gana/	282	sing
XVIII. Motion Verbs							
/ana/	/pəhəɽəna/	/pəhəɽəna/	/ana/	/kop e pəhuɽbo/	/ana/	283	arrive
/cəɽʰai kəɾna/	/cəɽʰna/	/cəɽʰna/	/caɽna:/	/cəɽʰao/	/cəɾna/	284	ascend
/lana/	/lana/	/lana/	/lana/	/lejaɽʰo/	/lana/	285	bring
/cəɽʰna/	/cəɽʰəna/	/cəɽʰəna/	/nice utəɾna/	/cəɽʰao/	/cəɾna/	286	climb
/ana/	/ana/	/ana/	/ana/	/aʃao/	/ana/	287	come
/nacna/	/nacəna/	/nacəna/	/na:c/	/nacna/	/nacna/	288	dance
/gʰəsiɽna/	/gʰəsiɽna/	/gʰəsiɽna/	/gʰasitna/	/kʰiɽna/	/kĩcna/	289	drag
/pɾəves kəɾna/	/gʰəɽəna/	/gʰəɽəna/	/pəɾbes kəɾna/	/adʒao/	/əndəɾ ana/	290	enter
/bʰag ʃana/	/bʰag ʃana/	/bʰag ʃana/	/bʰagʃana/	/bʰagɽʒana/	/bʰagna/	291	escape
/uɽna/	/ɽɽna/	/ɽɽna/	/ɽɽna/	/ɽɽʃana/	/urna/	292	fly(asabird)
/mɪɽna/	/mɪɽna/	/mɪɽəna/	/ləna/	/ləlu/	/pana/	293	get
/ʃəɽna/	/ʃaɽna/	/ɽʰəna/	/ɽʰna/	/ɽʰbətʰna/	/uɽʰna/	294	getup
/deɽna/	/deɽna/	/deɽna/	/deɽna/	/dædeɽo/	/de deɽna/	295	give

Sl.No.	English Gloss	Hindi	Awadhi	Dehati	Giharo	Gurumukhi	Khariboli
296	go	/ʃana/	/ʃana/	/ʃana/	/ʃajbo/	/ʃana/	/ʃana/
297	jump	/kudna/	/kud ʃa/	/kudna/	/kũdɪbo/	/kudna/	/kudna/
298	move(tram)	/həʃana/	/haʃa dia/	/hilana/	/həʃajbo/	/uʃʰna/	/hilana/
299	run	/dʒorna/	/dʒoʃa dia/	/dʒɪna/	/dʒoɾibo/	/doʃna/	/dʒuʃna/
300	send	/bʰeʃna/	/bʰeʃda/	/bʰeʃna/	/bʰeʃibo/	/ʋeʃna/	/bʰeʃna/
301	slip	/pʰisəlna/	/sərkət howe/	/pʰisəlna/	/pʰisəlibo/	/pʰisəlna/	/pʰisəlna/
302	standup	/kʰəʃa hona/	/kʰaʃa hoʃa/	/kʰəʃa hona/	/kʰəʃa hoibo/	/kʰəʃa hona/	/kʰəʃa hona/
303	swim	/tərna/	/gʰumla/	/tərna/	/təɾbo/	/tərna/	/təherna/
304	swing	/ʃʰulna/	/ʃʰula/	/ʃʰɪʋa/	/ʃʰɪʋa ʃʰɪlibo/	/cula/	/ʃʰu:la/
305	ride	/səʋari kərna/	/nikʰarda/	—	/səʋari kəɾibo/	/səʋari/	/lena/
306	visit	/dekʰne ʃana/ /milna/	/ulʃi/	/milne ʃana/	/milʋa ʃaibo/	/pʰeri/	/ulʃi/
307	walk		/pəjdər cəla/	/pədəl cəlna/	/pəjdər cəɾibo/	/turəna/	/pəjdəl cəlna/
XIX. Occupational Verbs							
308	cultivate	/kʰet ʃotna/	/kʰet ʃuta/	/kʰet ʃotna/	/kʰet ʃotibo/	/ʃotni/	/kʰet ʃotna/
309	comb	/kəŋgʰi kərna/	/kəŋgi kəra/	/kəŋgʰi kərna/	/kəŋgʰi kəɾibo/	/kəŋdʒ korno/	/kəŋgʰi korna/
310	graze	/cəraɳa/	/cəʃawa/	/gʰas cəraɳa/	/cəraɳibo/	/cəraɳe/	/cərna/
311	harvest	/fəsəl kaʃna/	/pʰəsəl kaʃa/	/pʰəsəl kəʃai kərna/	/pʰəsəl kaʃibo/	/pʰasəl kaʃəni/	/pʰəsəl kəʃai kərna/
312	lend	/ʋdʰar dena/	/udʰar deda/	/ʋdʰar dena/	/bjapar kəɾibo/	/udar dena/	/udʰar dena/
313	milk	/dudʰ dəhəna/	/duhatʰəme/	/dudʰ dohna/	/dudʰ dojbo/	/dud cona/	/dudʰ duhəna/
314	plant	/pɔdʰa ləgaɳa/	/peʃ lagawa/	/peʃ ləgaɳa/	/pɔdʰa ləgaɳibo/	/buʃa loɳna/	/peʃ kaʃna/
315	reap	/kaʃna/ /pʰəl bʰogna/	/pʰəsəl kaʃa/	/pʰəsəl kaʃna/	/pʰəsəl kaʃibo/	/pʰəsəl ʋadni/	/pʰəsəl kaʃna/
316	saw	/ciɾna/	/aʃi/	/aʃi/	/pʰaʃibo/	/silaʃi kəɾni/	/aʃi/
317	sow(seed)	/bona/	/biʃ bowa/	/biʃ bona/	/biʃ bəɾibo/	/bibidəʃa/	/biʃ bona/
XX. Culinary Verbs							
318	bark	/bʰɔkna/	/bʰəuka/	/bʰɔkna/	/bʰɔkibo/	/pũnkəna/	/bʰɔkna/
319	bite	/kaʃna/	/kaʃa/	/kaʃna/	/kaʃibo/	/ʋəʃəna/	/kaʃna/

Mainpuri	Malham	Malyani	Pratapgarhi	Rathodi	Urtia	Sl.No.	English Gloss
/ʃana/	/ʃana/	/ʃana/	/pəɾbes kəɾna/	/jana/	/ʃana/	296	go
/kudina/	/kudna/	/kudna/	/kudna/	/kunʃao/	/laphana/	297	jump
/həʃana/	/həʃana/	/həʃana/	/hataʃeb/	/helʃau/	/həʃana/	298	move(tram)
/dɔɾna/	/doɾna/	/dɔɾna/	/bʰag ʃana/	/doɾʃao/	/dɔɾna/	299	run
/bʰeʃna/	/bʰeʃna/	/bʰeʃna/	/dena/	/ɖunɖia/	/bhejna/	300	send
/fisəlna/	/pʰisəlna/	/pʰisəlna/	/gir ʃana/	/geɾpəɾo/	/phisəlna/	301	slip
/kʰəɾa hona/	stand up	/kʰəɾa hona/	/uɽʰna/	/tʰaɽəhoʃau/	/kʰara hona/	302	standup
/təɾna/	/təɾna/	/təɾna/	/təɾna/	/təɾna/	/təɾna/	303	swim
/ʃʰulna/	/hɪlʰna/	/ʃʰulʰna/	/ʃʰulna/	/ʃulna/	/ʃhulna/	304	swing
/səvəri kəɾna/	/səvəri kəɾna/	/səvəri kəɾna/	/nikalleɪb		X	305	ride
//	/milʰna/	/milʰna/	/ulʃi:/	/uliʃi hona/	/milne zana/	306	visit
/pədəl cəlna/	/cəlna/	/cəlna/	/paidalcaliʃab/	/pansecəlle/	/cəlna/	307	walk
XIX. Occupational Verbs							
/kʰet ʃotna/	/kʰet ʃotna/	/kʰet ʃotna/	/kʰet ʃotna/	/ʃətai kəɾna/	/upʃana/	308	cultivate
/kəŋgʰa kəɾna/	/kəŋgʰi kəɾna/	/kəŋgʰi kəɾna/	/kəŋgʰi/	/ūcʰ dāɾo/	/kəŋgʰi kəɾna/	309	comb
/cəɽajna/	/gʰas kʰana/	/gʰas kʰana/	/cəɾhəvai/	/gʰas kʰana/	/cəɾna/	310	graze
/pʰəsəl kəʃai kəɾna/	/kaʃna/	/kaʃna/	/ka:ʃab/	/səʃai kəɾlo/	/phəʃle kəʃai kəɾna/	311	harvest
/ɔdʰar dena/	/ɔdʰar dena/	/ɔdʰar dena/	/udʰari/	/odʰari kəɾlo/	/udʰar dena/	312	lend
/dudʰ/	/dolna/	/dud dʰona/	/dudʰ/	/dudʰ dolo/	/duhana/	313	milk
/peɽ ləgana/	/peɽ ləgana/	/peɽ ləgana/	/pe:ɽ laɽa:v/	/peɽ ləgalə/	/ropna/	314	plant
/pʰəsəl kaʃna/	/pʰəsəl kaʃna/	/pʰəsəl kaʃna/	/pʰasal katab/	/kʰet kaʃlo/	/kaʃna/	315	reap
/aɽi calana/	/silai kəɾna/	/silʰna/	/aɽi/	/ari/	/cirna/	316	saw
/biʃ bona/	/biʃ bona/	/becai kəɾna/	/da:na: bo:vub/	/bi:ʃ boau/	/bona/	317	sow(seed)
XX. Culinary Verbs							
/bʰɔkna/	/bʰɔkʰna/	/bʰɔkʰna/	/bʰokna/	/bʰukna/	/bʰokna/	318	bark
/kaʃna/	/kaʃna/	/kaʃna/	/ka:ʃav/	/kaʃkʰao/	/kaʃna/	319	bite

Sl.No.	English Gloss	Hindi	Awadhi	Dehati	Giharo	Gurumukhi	Khariboli
320	cook	/pəana/	/k ^h ana banawa/	/k ^h ana bənana/	/k ^h ana pakai ^h bo/	/k ^h ana/	/k ^h ana bənana/
321	drink	/pina/	/pija/	/pina/	/pi ^h bo/	/pi ^h na/	/pi:na/
322	eat	/k ^h ana/	/k ^h ana/	/k ^h ana/	/k ^h ana k ^h aj ^h bo/	/k ^h ana/	/k ^h ana/
323	feed	/k ^h ilana/	/pilawa/	/k ^h ilana/	/k ^h ilaj ^h bo/	/k ^h ilana/	/k ^h ilana/
324	suck	/cusna/	—	—	/cus ^h bo/	/cusəŋa/	/cu:sna/
325	tie	/bādh ^h na/	/bal bādh ^h a/	/bādh ^h na/	/band ^h ib ^h bo/	/sut ^h na/	/bal bādh ^h na/
326	wear	/pəhenna/	/pəhina/	/kəp ^h ra pəhina/	/pəh ^h ib ^h bo/	/kəpə ^h re pone/	/kəp ^h ra pəhinna/
XXI. Communication Verbs							
327	answer	/əttər dena/	/uttər da/	/əttər dena/	/uttər dibo/	/ʃəvab dena/	/uttər dena/
328	ask	/puc ^h na/	/puc ^h a/	/pūc ^h na/	/puc ^h ib ^h bo/	/puc ^h na/	/puc ^h na/
329	call	/bəlana/	/bulawa/	/bolana/	/bəlaj ^h bo/	//	/bulana/
330	say	/bolna/ /kəhəna/	/kəhia/	/kəhna/	/kəhib ^h bo/	/kehna/	/kəhna/
331	shout	/cillana/	/cillana/	/cillana/	/cillaj ^h bo /	/cilona/	/cillana/
332	write	/lik ^h na/	/lik ^h na/	/lik ^h na/	/lik ^h ib ^h bo/	/lik ^h əna/	/lik ^h na/
XXII. Stationary Verbs							
333	borrow	/ədh ^h ar lena/	/ag lagawa/	/ədh ^h ar lena/	/ədh ^h ar nibo/	/udar dena/	
334	choose	/cənnna/	/binəna/	/cənnna/	/pəsənd kəri ^h bo/	/cunna/	/cunna/
335	die	/mər ʃana/	/mərʃana/	/mər ʃana/	/mər ʃaj ^h bo/	/marna/	/mər ʃana/
336	hide	/leṭna/	—	/c ^h əpnna/	/leṭ ʃaj ^h bo/	/sətəna/	
337	earn	/kəmana/	/roṭgar kərna/	—	/roṭgar kəri ^h bo/	/nokri kəri ^h ni/	/kəmana/
338	hide	/c ^h ipana/	/c ^h upna/	/c ^h əpnna/	/c ^h upaj ^h bo/	/ləkna/	/c ^h upna/
339	keep	/rək ^h na/	/rək ^h na/	—	/rək ^h ib ^h bo/	/rək ^h o/	/rək ^h na/
340	wait	/prətikʃa kərna/	/dusre or g ^h uma/	—	/int ^h ar kəri ^h bo/	/apekʃa korni/	
341	sit	/beṭ ^h na/	/bəiṭ ^h əna/	/beṭ ^h na/	/bəiṭ ^h ib ^h bo/	/behna/	/bəiṭ ^h na/
342	stop	/rokna/	/rukʃa/	/ruk ʃana/	/rokib ^h bo/	/ruk ʃana/	/ruk ʃana/

Mainpuri	Malham	Malyani	Pratapgarhi	Rathodi	Urtia	Sl.No.	English Gloss
/k ^h ana bəna/	/k ^h ana bəna/	/b ^h oʃən bəna/	/rəsəivala/	/roʃi bəna/	/k ^h ana pəkana/	320	cook
/pina/	/pina/	/piŋa/	/pina/	/pilo/	/pina/	321	drink
/k ^h ana/	/k ^h ana/	/k ^h aŋa/	/k ^h ana/	/roʃi k ^h alo/	/k ^h ana/	322	eat
/k ^h ilana/	/k ^h ilana/	/k ^h ilaŋa/	/k ^h ilana/	/k ^h elado/	/k ^h ilana/	323	feed
/cusna/	/cusəna/	/cusəna/	/cusna/	/cusna/	/cus na/	324	suck
/bādhna/	/band ^h na/	/band ^h na/	/gāṭ ^h bad ^h na/	/ba:l bahandlo/	/bādhna/	325	tie
/kəpṛa penna/	/pəhənəna/	/pəhənəna/	/kəpṛa: pahini/	/onna pəhenlo/	/pehna/	326	wear
XXI. Communication Verbs							
/uttər dena/	/əttər dena/	/əttər dena/	/ʃəbab dena/	/uttərdeo/	/ʃəbab dena/	327	answer
/puc ^h ina/	/puc ^h na/	/puc ^h na/	/puc ^h na/	/pūc ^h lo/	/puchna/	328	ask
/bulana/	/bəlana/	/bəlana/	/bula:v/	/bulaleau/	/pukarna/	329	call
/kəhena/	/kəhna/	/kəhna/	/bolna/	/bolna/	/kəhna/	330	say
/cillana/	/cillana/	/cillana/	/cillana/	/abaʃ karna/	/cillana/	331	shout
/lik ^h na/	/lik ^h əna/	/lik ^h əna/	/lik ^h na/	/lik ^h na/	/lik ^h na/	332	write
XXII. Stationary Verbs							
/ədhār lena/	/ʃəlena/	/ədhār lena/	/ʃəlena/	/ədhār lena/	/ud ^h ar lena/	333	borrow
/cunna/	/cənəna/	/cənna/	/cunna/	/cənna/	/cunna/	334	choose
/məna/	/mər ʃana/	/mər ʃana/	/mər ʃana/	/k ^h atam hoʃana/	/məna/	335	die
/so ʃana/	/leʃəna/	/leʃəna/	/rehna/	/pər rahna/	/c ^h upna/	336	hide
/pəsa kəmana/	/kəmana/	/kəmana/	/ro:ʃka:r karab/		/kəmana/	337	earn
/c ^h ipna/	/c ^h əpna/	/c ^h əpəna/	/lukac ^h upi/	/gajab ho ʃana/	/c ^h upna/	338	hide
/rək ^h na/	/rək ^h na/	/rək ^h na/	/rak ^h ana/	/rak ^h dena/	/rək ^h na/	339	keep
/əpecc ^h a kəna/	/itəʃar kəṛəna/	/itəʃar kəṛəna/	/pələt ʃana/	/muṛna/	/əpecc ^h a kəna/	340	wait
/beṭ ^h na/	/beṭ ^h na/	/beṭ ^h na/	/bəit ^h əb/	/bəit ^h ʃana/	/beṭ ^h na/	341	sit
/bənd kər dena/	/rək ʃana/	/bənd kəna/	/bənd ^h kəna/	/rokna/	/rok lena/	342	stop

Sl.No.	English Gloss	Hindi	Awadhi	Dehati	Giharo	Gurumukhi	Khariboli
XXIII. In cohetive Verbs							
343	change	/bədəlna/	/bədli kəra/	–	/bədlibo/	/badla/	/bədəlna/
344	freeze	/ʃəm ʃana/	/ʃəm gəil/	/ʃəm ʃana/	/ʃəmaɪbo/	/ʃomna/	/ʃəmna/
345	swell	/suʃna/	/pʰul ʃana/	/pʰul ʃana/	/pʰɔlibo/	/pʰulna/	/pʰul ʃana/
346	wet(mskrwet)	/bʰigona/	/gila hona/	/gila kərna/	/gila kəribo/	/gila kərna/	/gila hona/
XXIV. Cognitive Verbs							
347	count	/ginna/	/ginəna/	/gʰirno/	/gina kəribo/	/ginna/	/ginna/
348	know	/ʃanna/	/ʃanna/	/ʃanna/	/sikʰibo/	/ʃanna/	/ʃanna/
349	learn	/sikʰna/	/sikʰa/	/sikʰna/	/sikʰibo/	/sikʰna/	/sikʰna/
350	think	/socna/	/soca/	/sōcna/	/socibo/	/socna/	/socna/
351	understand	/səmeʃʰna/	/toʃa/ pʰoʃa/	/səməʃna/	/səmeʃibo/	/səməʃana/	
XXV. Sensory and Emotive Verbs							
352	cry(weep)	/rona/	/rona/	/rona/	/āsu bahajbo/	/rona/	/rona/
353	fear	/dərna/	/dərna/	/dərna/	/dərɪbo/	/dər ləgəna/	/dərna/
354	hear	/sənnna/	/sunəna/	/sənnna/	/sənibo/	/sunəna/	/sunna/
355	laugh/smile	/məskəʃana/	/hāsna/	/hāsna/	/hāsibo/	/həsna/	/muskurana/
356	read	/pəʃʰna/	/pəʃʰna/	/pəʃʰna/	/pəʃʰibo/	/paʃna/	/pəʃna/
357	sleep,lie	/sona/ ləʃ ʃana/	/sona/	/sona/	/sojbo/	/sōgea/	/so:na/
358	smell	/suŋgʰna/	/sūha/	/suŋgʰna/	/sūgibo/	/sūŋgna/	/suŋgʰna/
359	taste	/cəkʰna/	/cʰikʰa/	/cəkʰna/	/cəkʰibo/	/cəkʰna/	/cəkʰna/
360	touch	/cʰuna/	/cʰuna/	/cʰuna/	/cʰuibo/	/cʰɔna/	/cʰuna/
361	wakeup	/ʃəgna/	/ʃagna/ uʃʰna/	/ʃagna/	/ʃagibo/	/ʃagəʃa/	/ʃagna/
362	annoy	/sətana/	/sətana/	/sətana/	/sətajbo/	/pəʃresan/	/sətana/
363	kiss	/cumna/	/cumma dena/	–	/cumibo/	/kʰoba dina/	/cu:mna/
364	love	/pjar kərna/	/pjer kəra/	/pasand karat hē/	/pjar kəribo/	/pjar korno/	/pjar/
365	tired	/tʰəkna/	/tʰək gəe/ tʰəkawat/	/tʰək ʃana/	/tʰəkaiibo/	/tʰəkna/	/tʰək ʃana/

Mainpuri	Malham	Malyani	Pratapgarhi	Rathodi	Urtia	Sl.No.	English Gloss
XXIII. In cohetive Verbs							
/bədəlna/	/bədəlna/	/bədəlna/	/badlab/		/bədəlna/	343	change
/ʃəm ʃana/	/ʃəm ʃana/	/ʃəm ʃana/	/ʃam gi:be:/	/ʃəʃana/	/ʃəm ʃana/	344	freeze
/pʰul ʃana/	/pʰul ʃana/	/pʰul ʃana/	/pʰulna/	/pʰulo/	/pʰulna/	345	swell
/gila hona/	/gila hona/	/gila hona/	/bʰig ʃana/	/ʃita hona/	/bʰigna/	346	wet(mskrwet)
XXIV. Cognitive Verbs							
/ginna/	/ginəna/	/ginəna/	/ginətʰən/	/ginnā/	/ginəna/	347	count
/pəhecanana/	/ʃanəna/	/ʃanəna/	/ʃa:nab/	/ʃan ʃana/	/ʃalna/	348	know
/sikʰna/	/sikʰna/	/sikʰəna/	/pərhai kəna/		/ʃikʰna/	349	learn
/socna/	/socəna/	/socəna/	/so: cab/	/socna/	/socna/	350	think
/səməʃʰna/	/səməʃʰəna/	/səməʃʰəna/	—	—		351	understand
XXV. Sensory and Emotive Verbs							
/rona/	/rona/	/rona/	/ro:vub/	—	/rona/	352	cry(weep)
/dərna/	/dərna/	/dərna/	/dɪra:b/	/darʃana/	/dərna/	353	fear
/sənnā/	/sənnā/	/sənnā/	/sunna/	/sən ləna/	/sunəna/	354	hear
/məskərana/	/həsna/	/həsəna/	/hasna/	/hasna/	/hāsna/	355	laugh/smile
/pəṛna/	/pəṛna/	/pəṛəna/	/pərhai kəna/	/paṛna/	/pəṛna/	356	read
/sona/	/sona/	/sona/	/sona/	/so ʃana/	/sona/	357	sleep,lie
/suṅgna/	/suṅna/	/sūṅna/	/sū:gab/	/səṅhna/	/sūṅhna/	358	smell
/cəkʰna/	/cəkʰna/	/cəkʰəna/	/cakʰana/	/səaad ləna/	/cəkʰna/	359	taste
/cʰuna/	/cʰuna/	/cʰuna/	/cʰuna/	/cʰoo ləna/	/cʰuna/	360	touch
/ʃəṅna/	/ʃəṅəna/	/ʃəṅna/	/ʃa:g ga:je:/	/ʃag ʃana/	/uṭʰna/	361	wakeup
/sətana/	/kʰiʃəna/	/sətana/	/ʃuʃla:ʃi:/	/birana/	/sətana/	362	annoy
/cumma dena/	/cəmbəna/	/cəmbəna/	/pɪrsād kəna/	/cəma ləna/	/cumna/	363	kiss
/pjar kəna/	/pjar kəṛəna/	/prem kəna/	/pja:r/	/dosti kəna/	/pjar kəna/	364	love
/tʰəkna/	/tʰəkəna/	/tʰəkəna/	/tʰakʃana/	/tʰaka həaa/	/tʰəkna/	365	tired

Sl.No.	English Gloss	Hindi	Awadhi	Dehati	Giharo	Gurumukhi	Khariboli
XXVI. Other Verbs							
366	bathe	/nəhɑnɑ/	/nahɑnɑ/	/nahɑnɑ/	/nəhɑɪbo/	/ŋoŋɑ/	/nəhɑnɑ/
367	buy	/kʰəɾidnɑ/	/kʰəɾidnɑ/	/kʰəɾidnɑ/	/kʰəɾidɪbo/	/kʰəɾidəŋɑ/	/kʰəɾidnɑ/
368	drip	/təpəkɪnɑ/	—	—	/təpəkajbo/	/təpəkɑ/	/təpək/
369	meet	/mɪlnɑ/ /bʰɛ̃t kəɾnɑ/	/mɪlnɑ/	/mɪlnɑ/	/mɪlɪbo/	/mɪlənɑ/	/mɪlnɑ/
370	repay	/cukɑnɑ/	—	—	/cukajbo/	/mɔ̃t bʰɔ̃gətan/	/cukɑnɑ/
371	ridicule, joke	/təpʰəs kəɾnɑ/	—	/məʃək kəɾnɑ/	/əpman kəɾɪbo/	/məʃək kəɾnɑ/	/məʃə kəɾnɑ/
372	show	/dɪkʰɑnɑ/	/dɪkʰət hoẽ/	/dekʰɑnɑ/	/dɪkʰɑɪbo/	/dɪkʰɑnɑ/	/dɪkʰɑnɑ/
373	scratch	/kʰəɾōcnɑ/	/nuca/	/nocnɑ/	/nocɪbo/	/nocnɑ/	/nocnɑ/
374	stick	/cɪpkɑnɑ/	/cəɾɪ/	—	/kajəm rəhɪbo/	/cɪpəkəŋ ləɪ/	
375	vomit	/təɭtɪ kəɾnɑ/	/ultɪ/	/ultɪ/	/təɭtɪ kəɾɪbo/	/ultɪ/	/ultɪ/
376	wean(achild)	/dudʰ cʰəɭɾɑnɑ/	—	—	/dudʰ cʰuɾajbo/	/dɔ̃dʰ cʰəɭɾɑnɑ/	/du:dʰ cʰuɾɑnɑ/
377	allow	/ənɔ̃mətɪ denɑ/	/pocʰɑ/	—	/ənɔ̃mətɪ dɪbo/	/məʃur kəɾən/	/pocʰnɑ/
378	name	/nam denɑ/	/nam diɦɑ/	—	/nam dɪbo/	/nam deŋɑ/	/nam/
XXVII. Adjectives							
379	all	/səb/ /səbʰɪ/	/səbʰɪ/	/səb/	/səbʰə/	/kəɭɑ/	/səb/
380	bad	/kʰəɾɑb/	/buɾɑ/	/gəndɑ/	/buɾo/	/bura/	/bura/
381	big	/bəɾɑ/	/bəɾɑ/	/bəɾɑ/	/bəɾo/	/vəɖɑ/	/bəɾɔ/
382	dirty	/gəndɑ/	/gəndʰatə/	/məɪl/	/gəndo/	/sukka/	/məɪɭɑ/
383	dry	/sukʰɑ/	/sukʰɑ/	/sukʰɑ/	/sukʰo/	/kʰəli/	/sukʰɑ/
384	few	/kɔ̃cʰ/	—	—	/kɔ̃cʰ/	/kuʃʰɑ/	/tʰoɖe/
385	full	/bʰəɾɑ hɔ̃ɑ/	/bʰəɾəlwa/	—	/puɾo/	/vəɖɑ/	/bʰəɾɔ/
386	good	/əccʰɑ/	/accʰɑ/	/bəɾɪjɑ/	/əccʰo/	/lɑci/	/əccʰɑ/
387	hard	/kəɭʰɪn/	/kəɭʰor/	/bʰɑɾɪ/	/kəɭʰɪn/	/pəɾɑ/	/kəɭʰɪn/
388	honest	/imɑndɑɾ/	/iməndɑɾ/	/səcca/	/sacco/	/səcca/	/əccʰɑ/
389	long	/ləmbɑ/ /ləmbɪ/	/ləmbɑ/	/ləmbɑ/	/ləmbɔ/	/ləbe/	/teɭ/

Mainpuri	Malham	Malyani	Pratapgarhi	Rathodi	Urtia	Sl.No.	English Gloss
XXVI. Other Verbs							
/nahana/	/nəhana/	/asnan kərna/	/nahana/	/saparna/	/nahana/	366	bathe
/kʰəridna/	/kʰəridna/	/kʰəridna/	/kʰaridna/	/lɛ ləna/	/kʰəriddari kərna/	367	buy
/təpəkna/	/cuna/	/cuna/	/təpəkna/	/təpəkna/	/təpkana/	368	drip
/mɪlna/	/mɪlna/	/mɪlap kərna/	/milavəʈ/	/mil ʃana/	/milna/	369	meet
/cəkana/	/cəkana/	/cəkana/	/cukana/	/cukana/	/cukana/	370	repay
/beʃʃəti kərna/	/məʃak kəʀəna/	/məʃak kəʀəna/	/məʃak/	/məʃak uʀana/	/maja kərna/	371	ridicule, joke
/dikʰana/	/dikʰana/	/dikʰana/	/dikʰana/	/dikʰa dəna/	/dikʰana/	372	show
/nocna/	/nocəna/	/nocəna/	/nocəb/	/noc dəna/	/kʰərocna/	373	scratch
/kajəm rəhəna/	/cipəkana/	/cipəkana/	/qandə:/	/bait/	/cipkana/	374	stick
/ɔlti kərna/	/ɔlti kəʀəna/	/ɔlti kəʀəna/	/ulʈi:/	/ɔlat/	/ulti kərna/	375	vomit
/dudʰ cʰəʀana/	/cʰəʀana/	/cʰəʀana/	/kʰilana/	/dudʰ cʰuʀana/	/dudʰ pilana/	376	wean(achild)
/ənəməti dəna/	/anəməti/	/anəməti/	/səpʰai kərna/	/pocʰdəna/		377	allow
/nam dəna/	/nam ləna/	/nam ləna/	/na:m de:baʃ/	—	/nam/	378	name
XXVII. Adjectives							
/sab/	/səb/	/səb/	/səb/	/bilat/	/ʃəbo/	379	all
/bəʀa/	/bəʀa/	/bəʀa/	/kʰərab/	/bəʀa/	/bura/	380	bad
/bəʀo/	/bəʀa/	/bəʀa/	/sa:hasba:/	/baʀa/	/bəʀa/	381	big
/gəndo/	/gənda/	/gənda/	/kʰərab/	/məla/	/gəndʰar/	382	dirty
/sukʰo/	/sukʰa/	/sukʰa/	/sukʰa/	/səkʰa həaa/	/ʃukʰa/	383	dry
/kucʰ/	/kʷcʰ/	/kʷcʰ/	/kucʰ/	/kucʰ/	/fev/	384	few
/pura/	/bʰəra/	/bʰəra/	/pura/	/bʰaro bʰao/	/pura/	385	full
/əccʰo/	/accʰa/	/accʰa/	/acʰa:/	/accʰo/	/əccʰa/	386	good
/kəʈʰin/	/kəʈʰin/	/kəʈʰin/	/kəʈʰor/	/katʰor/	hand	387	hard
/səcco/	/imanədar/	/imanədar/	/səcca/	/sacca/	/imandar/	388	honest
/lambo/	/ləmba/	/ləmba/	/bəra/	lamba	/ləmba/	389	long

Sl.No.	English Gloss	Hindi	Awadhi	Dehati	Giharo	Gurumukhi	Khariboli
390	many	/ənek/	/bəhut/	/bəhut/	/bəhot/	/kənʃusə/	/teʃ/
391	narrow	/səŋkirŋ/	/səŋkir/	—	/sākin/	/nəwa/	/təŋ/
392	new	/nəja/	/nəja/	/nəja/	/neja/	/pəraŋa/	/nəja/
393	old	/pəraŋa/	/purana/	/purana/	/purano/	/pəraŋa/	/purana/
394	raw	/kacca/	/kacca/	/kacca/	/kacci/	/kəcca/	/kacca/
395	rotten	/səɽa hɔa/	/səɽa hua/	/səɽa hua/	/səɽo/	/səɽa/	/gəla hua/
396	right	/səhi/	/səhi/	—	/səhi/	/bəŋəahoida/	/əccʰa/
397	cheap	/səsta/	—	—	/səsto/	/səstə/	/sustʰ/
398	clever	/calak/	—	/calak/	/cətəro/	/məŋga/	/ʃʰuɽ bolna/
399	sharp	/tez/	/dʰarba/	/teʃ/	/teʃ/	/teʃi/	/teʃ/
400	short	/cʰoɽa/	/naɽaba/	/naɽa/	/naɽo/	/cʰoɽa/	/gəɽa/
401	some	/kʰali/	—	/ko/	/kʰali/	/kʰali/	/kucʰ/
402	small	/cʰoɽa/	/cʰoɽa/	/cʰoɽa/	/cʰoɽo/	/cʰoɽa/	/cʰoɽo/
403	smart	/cətəɽ/	/husiar/	/teʃ/	/hosiaro/	/copəkərna/	/teʃ cənebala/
404	smooth	/kripalu/	—	—	/dəjalə/	/kisəm/	/cikna/
405	soft	/məɽajəm/	/mulajəm/	/nəɽəm/	/nəɽəm/	/nəɽəmi/	/nəɽəm/
406	straight	/sidʰa/	/sidʰa/	/sidʰa/	/sidʰo/	/sidʰa/	/sidʰa/
407	strength	/takət/	/bəl/	/bəl/	/takət/	/takati/	/bəl/
408	thick	/gaɽʰa/	/gaɽʰa/	/moɽa/	/moɽo/	/moɽa/	/moɽa/
409	thin	/pətla/	/pətla/	/pətla/	/patro/	/pətəla/	/pətla/
410	ugly	/bədsurət/	/bətsurət/	/bəsurət/	#VALUE!	/bədəsurət/	/bura cehra/
411	vice	/doʃ/	/əuɡuɽ/	/augun/	/duracar/	/avɡūni/	/əvəɡu:ɽ/
412	virtue	/gəɽŋ/	/guɽ/	/sədacar/	/sədacar/	/acʰa/	/sədacar/
413	warm	/gəɽəm/	—	—	/gəɽəm/	/gəɽəm/	/gəɽəm/
414	weak	/dəɽbəl/	/dugla/	/dəɽbəl/	/kəmʃor/	/kəməʃor/	/dəɽbəl/
415	wet	/gila/	/bʰiga/	/gila/	/gilo/	/gila/	/bʰila/

Mainpuri	Malham	Malyani	Pratapgarhi	Rathodi	Urtia	Sl.No.	English Gloss
/bahɔt/	/bəhɔt/	/bəhɔt/	/bəhut/	/bahɔt/	/bəhut/	390	many
/təŋgo/	/səkəra/	/səkəra/	/pətla/		/sənkirn/	391	narrow
/nəvo/	/nəja/	/nəja/	/nəbin/	/nao/	/nəja/	392	new
/purano/	/pɔrana/	/pɔrana/	/purana/	/pɔrano/	/purana/	393	old
/kəcco/	/kəcca/	/kəcca/	/kəcca/	/kacca/	/kəcca/	394	raw
/səɽo/	/səra/	/səra/	/səɽa/	/bɔra/	/fəɽa hua/	395	rotten
/səhi/	/səhi/	/səhi/	/dāhini bʰuɽa/	safi	/tʰik/	396	right
/səsto/	/səsta/	/səsta/	/sustʰ/			397	cheap
/calu/	/cəlak/	/cəlak/	/cʰɔtʰ bolna/	/sɔdʒan/	/cətraɪ kərnevala/	398	clever
/tej/	/teɽ/	/teɽ/	/teɽ/	/ɽaldi/	/tez/	399	sharp
/cʰoɽo/	/cʰoɽa/	/cʰoɽa/	/bəuna/	/cʰota/	/naɽa/	400	short
/kʰali/	/kʰali/	/kʰali/	/kucʰ/	/kʰatam/	/kuch/	401	some
/cʰoɽo/	/cʰoɽa/	/cʰoɽa/	/cʰoɽ/	/nata/	/choɽa/	402	small
/catər/	/teɽ/	/hɔsɽar/	/cətur/	/catər/	/hoɽiɽar/	403	smart
/dəjalu/	/dəjalu/	/dəjalu/	/cikna/	/diɽa karne bala/	/smudʰ/	404	smooth
/mɔləjəm/	/nərəm/	/nərəm/	/mulajəm/	/naram/	/mulajəm/	405	soft
/sidʰo/	/sidʰa/	/sidʰa/	/sidʰa/		/ɽidʰa/	406	straight
/bəl/	/takət/	/takət/	/takət/	/himmət/	/takat a ɽana/	407	strength
/moɽo/	/moɽa/	/moɽa/	/moɽa/	/mota/	/moɽa/	408	thick
/pətro/	/pətla/	/pətla/	/pətil/	/dɔbla/	/pətla/	409	thin
/bədsɔrət/	/bʰəddə/	/bʰəddə/	/bədsurət/	/besɔrat/	/bədɽurət/	410	ugly
/duracar/	/dos/	/dos/	/dos/	/əugon/	/əbuɽho/	411	vice
/sədacar/	/gɔɽ/	/gɔɽ/	/sədacar/	/bidɽa/	/ɽəɽacar/	412	virtue
/gərəm kərna/	/gəɽəm/	/gəɽəm/	/gərəm/	/gərəm kərna/	/gərəm/	413	warm
/dɔrbəl/	/kəmɔɽor/	/dɔrbəl/	/kəmɽor/	/kamɽor/	/kəmɽor/	414	weak
/gilo/	/gila/	/gila/	/gi:la/	/fito/	/gila/	415	wet

Sl.No.	English Gloss	Hindi	Awadhi	Dehati	Giharo	Gurumukhi	Khariboli
416	wide	/cɔɔɾa/	—	—	/cəɔɾo/	/cauɾa/	/cəɾa/
417	wild	/ʃəŋgli/	/ʃəŋgli/	/ʃəŋgəli/	/ʃəŋgəli/	/ʃəŋgəli/	/ʃəŋgli/
418	wise	/bɔddʰiman/	/gʲæni/	/gʲjani/	/gɛni/	/vidvani/	/məhan/
XXVIII. Functional Words							
419	east	/purəb/	/purəb/	/purəb/	/purəb/	/pərəb/	/purəb/
420	end	/ənt/	—	—	/əntim/	/at/	/ənt/
421	far	/dur/	/dure/	—	/dur/	/dɔre/	/du:r/
422	leftside	/bāi tərəf/	/baja hat/	/bajā hatʰ/	/bāi or/	/daʃa hatʰ/	/kʰɛra/
423	middle	/mədʰjə/	/bicce me/	/bic mē/	/bicu me/	/bico da/	/bicme/
424	near	/pas/	/pas ləge/	/pas/	/pas me/	/nikəʈ/	/pas/
425	north	/əttər/	/uttər/	/uttər/	/əttər/	/utəri/	/uttər/
426	out	/bahər/	/bəhəre/	/bahar/	/bahır/	/berke/	/bahar/
427	rightside/hand	/bāi tərəf/	/dəina hat/	/dəhina hatʰ/	/dāi or/, /dāi hātʰ/	/kʰaba hatʰi/	/dajā/
428	south	/dəkfɪn/	/dəccʰin/	/dəkkʰin/	/dakʰin/	/dəkfɪni/	/dəccʰiʈ/
429	again	/dobara/ /fir/	/dubara/	—	/dɔbara/	/dubara/	/dubara/
430	always	/həmeʃa/	/hamesa/	/hamesa/	/həmesa/	/hun taki/	/əbtək/
431	before	/pəhəle/	/pəhile/	/pəhile/	/pəhəle/	/pehla/	/pəhəle/
432	daily	/roz/	/roʃ/	/roʃ/	/roʃ/	/roʃana/	/ro:ʃ/
433	day	/dɪn/	/dinba/	/din/	/dɪn/	/dɪn/	/din/
434	evening	/ʃam/	/sāʃ/	/sam/	/sāʃʰ/	/ʃam/	/sam/
435	fast/quick	/tez/	/ʃəldi se/	/bərət/	/ʃəldi se/	/upvaʃ/	/ʃəldise/
436	fullmoonday	/purɪma/	/puɾima/	/purima/	/purɪma/	/purəɳəmasi da dɪn/	/əməvəs/(pu ɾima/)
437	late	/der se/	/deri/	/deri/	/deri/	/deri/	/deri/
438	month	/məhina/	/məhina/	/məhina/	/məhina/	/mihna/	/məhina/
439	morning	/səbəh/	/subere/	/subʰa/	/səvero/	/səʋere/	/subəh/

Mainpuri	Malham	Malyani	Pratapgarhi	Rathodi	Urtia	Sl.No.	English Gloss
/cəɔɾa/	/cəra/	/cəra/	/cəɾa/	/cəɔɾa/	/coura/	416	wide
/ʃəŋgli/	/ʃəŋgəli/	/ʃəŋgəli/	/ʃəŋgli/	/ʃāgli/	/ʃəŋgəli/	417	wild
/hosiar/	/gjani/	/vidvan/	/budd ^h iman/	/catər/	/bidvan/	418	wise
XXVIII. Functional Words							
/purəb/	/pəɾəb/	/pəɾəb/	/purəb/	/purab/	/purəbo/	419	east
/səməpt/	/səməpt/	/səməpt/	/k ^h ətəm/		/kətəm/	420	end
/dur/	/dur/	/dur/	/du:r/	/dur/	/dur/	421	far
/bāi tərəf/	/bāe/	/bāe/	/bāya/	/bāj kəni/	/bāē-/	422	leftside
/bicme/	/bic/	/bic me/	/bicmɛ/	/bicam bic/	/bicme/	423	middle
/pas/	/nəʃədik/	/pas/	/nəzdik/	/ēgar/	/nikəʃə/	424	near
/uttər/	/əttər/	/əttər/	/uttər/	/əttar/	/uttər/	425	north
/bahar/	/bahəɾ/	/bahəɾ/	/bəhere/	/bahar/	/bahar/	426	out
/dāi tərəf/	/dāe/	/dāe/	/dāina/	/daj kəni/	/dāī-/	427	rightside/hand
/dəcc ^h in/	/dəkc ^h in/	/dəkk ^h in/	/dəkc ^h in/	/dākc ^h in/	/dəcc ^h in/	428	south
/dobara/	/p ^h ir/	/dobara/	/dobara/	/dəsra/	/dobara/	429	again
/həmesa/	/həməʃa/	/həməʃa/	/həmes ^h a/	/hāmesa/	/həməʃa/	430	always
/pəhele/	/pəhle/	/pəhle/	/pəhile/	/pə ^h alɛ/	/pəhele/	431	before
/roʃ/	/roʃ/	/roʃ/	/roʃ/	/roʃ/	/roj/	432	daily
/din/	/dɪn/	/dɪn/	/divəs/	/din/	/din/	433	day
/sam/	/ʃam/	/ʃam/	/sām/	/sāc ^h /	/sam/	434	evening
/ʃəldi/	/ʃəldi se/	/ʃəldi se/	/ʃəldi/	/ʃaldi/	/teʃ/	435	fast/quick
/purnima/	/purnɪma/	/purnɪma/	/pu:rɪnima:/	/puno/	/punəm/	436	fullmoonday
/der/	/der/	/der/	/der se/	/der sɛ/	/der/	437	late
/məhina/	/məhina/	/məhina/	/mahina/	/mahina/	/məhina/	438	month
/səbəhə/	/səbəh/	/subəh/	/sub ^h a/	/sabero/	/ʃubaa/	439	morning

Sl.No.	English Gloss	Hindi	Awadhi	Dehati	Giharo	Gurumukhi	Khariboli
440	night	/rat/	/rat/	/rati/	/ratı/	/rat/	/rat/
441	season	/m̥osəm/	/m̥osəm/	/ritu/	/rit̥s/	/k̥adek̥ade/	/rit/
442	today	/aʃ/	/aʃ/	/aʃ/	/aʃ/	/aʃ/	/aʃ/
443	tomorrow	/kəl/	/kəl/	/kal/	/kali/	/kəlha/	/kəl/
444	yesterday	/kəl/	/kəl/	/kal/	/kali/	/kəlha/	/kəl/
445	after/afterwards	/bad mē/	/bade me/	/bad me/	/badı me/	/baci/	/badme/
446	behind	/pic ^h e/	/pic ^h e/	/pic ^h e/	/pic ^h ̥s me/	/wecə/	/pic ^h e/
447	between	/bic mē/	/bicceme/	/bicme/	/bicu me/	/vici/	/bicme/
448	by	/d̥ara/	/l̥age me/	/pas m̥e/	/doara/	/ap̥s hage/	/pasme/
449	down	/nice/	/nice ki or/	–	/nice/	/t ^h ̥le/	/ni:ce/
450	for	/ke lie/	/ke lie/	/Ø/ /ko/	/ke lie/	/k̥əske/	/ke liye/
451	from	/se/	/se/	/se/	/se/	/s̥e/	/se/
452	he/she	/v̥əh/	/ua/, /u/	/v̥/, /va/	/v̥o/, /v̥ə/	/s̥e/	/v̥ah̥ə/
453	toher, tohim	/v̥se/	/usko/	/b̥əher/	/v̥se/	/teske/	/usko/
454	here	/j̥əh̥ā/	/eh̥ər/	/id ^h ̥ər/	/ih̥ā/	/irk ^h ̥s/	/id ^h ̥ər/
455	his/her	/v̥ska/	/use/ /uski/	/v̥ska/	/v̥ska/ /v̥ski/	/s̥e/ /uski/	/uska/
456	how	/k̥ese/	/k̥aise/	/k̥ese/	/kitne/	/kero/	/k̥ajse/
457	I	/m̥ē/	/mo/	/m̥ē/	/m̥ē/	/m̥ē/	/m̥əj/
458	it/this	/j̥əh/	/ih̥ə/ /uh̥ə/	–	/v̥o/ /ʃo/	/ɛʃ/ e/	/v̥ah̥ə/
459	toit/tothis	/ise/	/ih̥āka/ /uh̥āka/	–	/v̥oko/ /ʃoko/	/ɛrk ^h ̥o/ /terk ^h ̥o/	/ise/
460	its/ofthis	/iska/	/inke/ /unke/	/isko/	/v̥ska/	/āʃke/tāʃke/	/isko/
461	like	/ʃ̥ese/	/ʃ̥aise/	/ʃ̥ese/	/ı t̥ara/	/ʃ̥ero/	/p̥əsənd/
462	tome	/m̥v̥ʃ ^h e/	/m̥oke/	/muʃ ^h ko/	/mere/	/min̥s/	/mer̥s/
463	my	/mera/	/mor/	/meri/	/meri/	/mero/	/meri/
464	our	/h̥amara/	/hamlog̥ənke/	/h̥amlogka/	/h̥amare/	/maro/	/hamlogka/
465	not	/n̥əh̥ī/	/n̥ahi/	/n̥əhi/ (/h̥e/)	/na/ /m̥ət/	/na/	/na/

Mainpuri	Malham	Malyani	Pratapgarhi	Rathodi	Urtia	Sl.No.	English Gloss
/rat/	/rat/	/rat/	/rat/	/rat/	/rat/	440	night
/rits/	/mɔsəm/	/mɔsəm/	/ritu/	/rits/	/rut/	441	season
/aʃ/	/aʃ/	/aʃ/	/aʃ/	/aʃ/	/aj/	442	today
/kəl/	/kəl/	/kəl/	/kəl/ (/ane wala/)	/kal/	/kəl/	443	tomorrow
/kəl/	/kəl/	/kəl/	/kəl/ (/ane wala/)	/pic ^h la din/	/kəl/	444	yesterday
/badme/	/bad mē/	/bad me/	/bad me/	/bad mē/	/bad me/	445	after/afterwards
/pic ^h e/	/pic ^h e/	/pic ^h e/	/pic ^h e/	/pac ^h aṭ/	/pic ^h e/	446	behind
/bicme/	/ke bic/	/mædd ^h e me/	/bicme/	/bicam bic/	/vic/	447	between
/pasme/	/dvara/	/pas me/	/se/	/ēgar/	/paʃme/	448	by
/nice/	/nice/	/nice/	/ni:ce/	/təre/, /nice/	/nic/	449	down
/lie/	/ke lije/	/ke lije/	/ke lie/	/ke lije/	/ke lie/	450	for
/te/	/se/	/se/	/se/	/sē/	/ʃe/	451	from
/bu/, /ba/	/vəh/	/vəh/	/wo/	/bah/	/voh/	452	he/she
/ʊsko/ /ʊnko/	/use/	/ʊsko/	/usko/	/ʊsko/	/use/ /unko/	453	toher,tohim
/id ^h ər/	/id ^h ər/	/ʊd ^h ər/	/id ^h ər/	/ite/	/id ^h ər/	454	here
/ʊska/	/ʊsəka/ /ʊsəki/	/ʊska/ /ʊski/	/uska/	/ʊnki/	/uske/ /unke/	455	his/her
/kese/	/kese/	/kese/	/kistarəh/	/kaise/	/keʃje/	456	how
/mē/	/mē/	/mē/	/mē/	/mē/	/məj/	457	I
/bo/	/jəh/	/jəh/	/je/	/jah/	/voh/	458	it/this
/iska/	/ʊsako/	/ʊsəko/	/isko/	/ʊhāko/	/iske lie/	459	toit/tothis
/iska/	/ʊsəka/	/ʊska/	/iska/	/kisko/	/iska/	460	its/ofthis
/ʃese/	/ʃese/	/ʃese/	/esa/	/ʃaise/	/ʃejse/	461	like
/mɔʃ ^h ko/	/mɔʃ ^h e/	/mɔʃ ^h ko/	/mɔʃ ^h ē/	/mɔʃ ^h ko/	/muʃ ^h ko/	462	tome
/mera/	/mera/	/mera/	/mera/	/mera/ /meri/	/mera/	463	my
/həmarə/	/həmlɔg ka/	/həmlɔg ka/	/təmahara/	x	/hamlɔg ka/	464	our
/nəl/	/nəhi/	/nəhi/	/nəhi/	/nəhi/	/nəhi/	465	not

Sl.No.	English Gloss	Hindi	Awadhi	Dehati	Giharo	Gurumukhi	Khariboli
466	so/thus	/ɪs lɪe/	/əɪsa/	/əɪsa/	/ɪs lɪe/	/ɛda/	/ɪsliye/
467	that	/vəh/	/u/ /ɪs/	/voh/	/vəh/	/unaʃanenu/	/vo/
468	tothem	/ʊnhe/	/unlogəŋke/	—	/ʊne/	/unham nu/	/unhe/
469	then	/təb/	/təb/	—	/to/	/təbi/	/təb/
470	those	/ve/	—	/je/, /vi/	/ʊnək/	/uha/	/unko/
471	there	/vəhā/	/udʰər/	/udʰər/	/ʊhā/	/ɛrkʰo/	/udʰər/
472	they	/ve/	/uelog/	/welog/	/ve/	/se māčʰ se/	/ve log/
473	their	/ʊnka/	/unlogəŋke/	—	/ʊnka/	/tino macʰo ke/	/unka/
474	these	/je/	/ɪsəb/	/ɪsəb/	/ɪnək/	/ɛʃe səbʰ/	/esəb/
475	tous	/həmē/	/hamlog ke/	/həmlɔgoka/	/həmare/	/mara/	/hamlogōko/
476	we	/həm/	/hamlog ke/	/həmlɔg/	/həm/	/āsi log/	/hamlog/
477	what	/kja/	/ka/	/kja/	/ka/	/kja/	/kja/
478	when	/kəb/	/kəb/	/kəb/	/kəb/	/kəbɛ/	/kəb/
479	where	/kəhā/	/kehər/	/kidʰər/	/kəhā/	/kɪtʰe/	/kidʰər/
480	who	/kɔon/	/kɔn/	/kɔn/	/kaʊn/	/konɪ/	/kɔ:n/
481	whose	/kɪska/	—	/kɪska/ /kinka/	/kɪnoka/	/ʃɪsəda/	/kiska/
482	whom	/kɪska/	/ke ke/	/kisko/	/ʃɪnoka/	/kiō/	/kisko/
483	you	/təm/	/tū/	/tum/	/təm/	/tenə/	/tum/
484	toyou	/təmkɔ/	/tūɔke/	/tum kɔ/	/təko/	/tūvo ke/	/tumko/
485	your	/təmhara/	/tuhar/	/tumhara/	/tumhara/	/tāɖa/	/tumhara/
486	year	/sal/	/sal/	—	/bərəs/	/borɪʃ/	/bərs/
487	and	/ɔər/	/əur/	/ɔur/	/əʊr/	/ate/	/əor/
488	at	/pər/	/ūha/	/vəha/	//	/pitʰe/	/wahā/
489	if	/jədi/	/jədi/	/jədi/	/əgər/	/ʃadi/	/jədi/
490	in	/mē/	/emme/	/me/	/ma/, /me/	/ɪŋgo/teske/	/usme/

Mainpuri	Malham	Malyani	Pratapgarhi	Rathodi	Urtia	Sl.No.	English Gloss
/pʰir/	/ɪsʈlije/	/ɛsa/	/ɛse/	/ɛsa/	/ɪs lie/	466	so/thus
/ki/	/vo/	/vəh/	/wo/	/bah/	/oh/	467	that
/be log/	/ʈsʈko/	/ʈsʈko/	/usko/	/ʈnlogo ko/	/un logõ ko/	468	tothem
/təv/	/pʰir/	/təb/	/æse/	/tab/	/phir/	469	then
/besəb/	/ve/	/ve səb/	/we/	/unne/	/doz/	470	those
/vəhã/	/vəhã/	/ʈdʰər/	/ʈdʰar/	/ʈtɛ/	/udʰər/	471	there
/besəb/	/ve/	/ve log/	/we log/	/bo log/	/ve log/	472	they
/ʈnka/	/ʈsʈka/	/ʈsʈka/	/unka/	/ʈnlogo ko/	/unka/	473	their
/ʈesəb/	/je səb/	/je səb/	/je səb/	/bah sab/	/səbu/	474	these
/həmləgõ ke/	/həmə/	/həmləgõ ko/	/hamtino/	/hamlogo ko/	/ham	475	tous
/həm/	/həm/	/həmləg/	/hamsəb/	/ham log/	/həmləg/	476	we
/ka/	/kja/	/kja/	/kjũ/	/kija/	/kea/	477	what
/kəb/	/kəb/	/kəb/	/kab/	/kab/	/ʈəb/	478	when
/kite/	/kidʰər/	/kidʰər/	/vəhar/	/kidʰar/	/kidʰər/	479	where
/ko/	/kon/	/kən/	/kən/	/kon/	/kɔon/	480	who
/kinko/	/kɪsʈka/	/kɪsʈka/	/kiska/		/kiska/	481	whose
/kinko/	/kise/	/kisko/	/kisko/	/kisko/	/kisko/	482	whom
/təm/	/təm/	/təm/	/toka/	/təm/	/tum/	483	you
/təmakõ/	/təmhẽ/	/təmkõ/	/toka/	/təmkõ/	/apko/ /tumko/	484	toyou
/təmhara/	/təmhara/	/təmhara/	/həmar səbke/	/təmahare/	/tumhara/	485	your
/sal/	/sal/	/sal/	/sal/	/sal/	/vərʃə/	486	year
/ɔor/	/aur/	/ɔr/	/ɔr/	/aor/	/aor/	487	and
/vəhã/	/pəɾ/	/pəɾ/	/pər/	/baʰã/	/pər/	488	at
/əgər/	/jədi/	/jədi/	/əgər/	/jadi/	/ʈədi/	489	if
/mẽ/	/mẽ/	/mẽ/	/mẽ/	/ʈsme/	/isme/	490	in

Sl.No.	English Gloss	Hindi	Awadhi	Dehati	Giharo	Gurumukhi	Khariboli
XXIX. Mixed Words							
491	wave	/ləhɛɾ/	/ləhəɾ/	/ləhɛɾ/	/ləhɛɾɪ/	/ləhəɾ/	/ləhəɾ/
492	ancestor	/purvəʃ/	—	—	/pɛhɛle ka admi/	/purəʋəʃ/	/purvəʃ/
493	brother-in-Law	/sala/	/dəvəɾ/	/ʃiʃa/	/deur/	/sala/	/ʃiʃa/
494	kindly	/kɪɾpəʃa/	/nənəd/	/dəʃa purvək/	/dəʃase/	/kɪɾəpa kəɾəʃke/	/bʰabʰi/
495	mouse	/cuha/	/mus/	/musava/	/mɔssa/	/cuva/	/mu:s/
496	spider	/mækɾi/	/makali/	/mækəri/	/mækɾi/	/məkɾi/	/mækɾi/
497	beard	/daɾʰi/	/daɾi/	/daɾʰi/	/daɾʰi/	/daɾi/	/daɾʰi/
498	moustache	/mũcʰ/	/mucʰ/	/məcʰ/	/mũcʰ/	/mocʰi/	/mu:cʰ/
499	navel	/nabʰi/	—	—	/nabʰ/	/nabʰi/	/nabʰi/
500	mirror	/aina/	/sisə/	/aina/	/sisə/	/aʃina/	/ajna/

Mainpuri	Malham	Malyani	Pratapgarhi	Rathodi	Urtia	Sl.No.	English Gloss
XXIX. Mixed Words							
/ləher/	/d ^h ara/	/ləher/	/ləhər/	/ləheɾ/	/ləherẽ/	491	wave
/purvəɟ/	/purvəɟ/	/purvəɟ/	/purvəɟ/		/purbəɟ/	492	ancestor
/sala/	/sala/	/sala/	/devər/	/ɟiɟa/	/ɟiɟa/	493	brother-in-Law
/dəjate/	/kɾipja/	/dja pərvək/	/nənəd/	/nənd/	/bhabhi/	494	kindly
/cuhəra/	/cuha/	/cuha/	/cu:ha:/	/cok ^h aro/	/cuha/	495	mouse
/mækəri/	/məkəɾa/	/mækɾi/	/mækramakri/	/makɾi/	/mækɾijã/	496	spider
/daɾi/	/daɾ ^h i/	/daɾ ^h i/	/daɾhi/	/t ^h oɳi/	/daɾ ^h i/	497	beard
/mūc ^h /	/muc ^h /	/mɔc ^h /	/muc/	/mɔc ^h /	/muc ^h /	498	moustache
/nab ^h i/	/nab ^h i/	/nab ^h i/	/nab ^h i/	/guddi/	/nab ^h i/	499	navel
/sisā/	/aina/	/sisā/	/sisā/	/əaina/	/dərpan/	500	mirror



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